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THE
HISTORICAL READER,
DESIGNED
FOR THE USE OF
SCHOOLS AND FAMILIES.
ON A NEW PLAN.

BY REV. J. L. BLAKE, A. M. S. H. S.

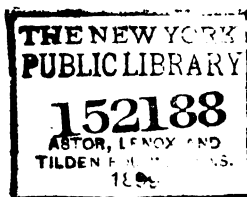
“History serves to amuse the imagination; to interest the passions; to improve the understanding; and to strengthen the sentiments of virtue and piety.”

SECOND EDITION.

CONCORD:

PRINTED BY ISAAC HILL.

.....
1824.



DISTRICT OF NEW-HAMPSHIRE :—TO WIT.

District Clerk's Office.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the eighteenth day of December, A. D. 1822, and in the forty-seventh year of the Independence of the United States of America, **JOHN LAURIS BLAKE**, of the said District, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as Author, in the words following, viz.

"The Historical Reader, designed for the use of Schools and Families. On a new plan. By Rev. John Lauris Blake, A. M. S. H. S., Principal of the Literary Seminary, Concord, New-Hampshire. "History serves to amuse the imagination; to interest the passions; to improve the understanding; and to strengthen the sentiments of virtue and piety."

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned;"—and also to an act, entitled, An act supplementary to an act, entitled, "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned; and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints."

WILLIAM CLAGGETT,

Clerk of the District of New-Hampshire.

A true copy of record.

Attest—

WILLIAM CLAGGETT, Clerk.

PREFACE,

WHY is it, there exists such a propensity, and especially with females, for reading Novels? And, why such an aversion, it may be said, such a consequent aversion, for reading History? Is this an evil inseparable from human nature? Is man naturally the subject of an intellectual as well as of a moral depravity? Should the great extent of the evil be thought to warrant such a conclusion, it is confidently believed that man does not inherit this species of degradation. But if the mental perversion under consideration is an exotic in our nature, whence is it derived, and what corrective can be applied?—An inquiry is thus suggested, which, if successfully answered, cannot be deemed unimportant.

The reading books for schools, so far as the observation of the Author has extended, consist principally of extracts of the moral, didactic, and declamatory kind. It is admitted, that from the last, boys and young men are furnished with suitable exercises for declamation; but extracts from public discourses suitable for declamation, are not sufficiently sentimental for reading lessons; or, if in any considerable degree sentimental, they are generally on subjects not interesting to young persons. And this last remark is applicable to those parts of our school reading books which consist of moral and didactic pieces. It is indeed true, the minds of young persons should be impressed with virtuous sentiments as soon as possible; but it is apprehended, the first impressions of the kind must rather be made incidentally, than by a regular attention to moral essays and dissertations. The discussion of ethical subjects is too abstruse and metaphysical for minds not invigorated by study and long habits of reflection. Besides, the most effectual method of impressing the minds of young persons with moral principles, is by presenting to them virtuous actions. The first ideas we have, are of sensible objects—objects of sight, of touch, of sound, and of taste. A long discourse on the beauties of a particular virtue, or a particular moral principle, will not make the deep impression on the mind, that is made by the description of an action which exemplifies this virtue, or involves this principle. Nor will a long discourse, on a particular vice, produce that abhorrence of it, that is produced by a full detail of the several circumstances attending the commission of it. In other words, virtue must be taught by example, or the history of virtuous actions, which is essentially the same thing; and the mind must be fortified against bad principles, by the exhibition of vicious conduct attended with all its disgraceful consequences.

From the observations made, it will be perceived, that our children and youth can acquire but a small fund of ideas from the books they read in schools; and from observation, it will be seen, that this is the fact. They may, and probably do, frequently acquire a decent knowledge of an elementary education, or of the most necessary parts of it. But what if they do this, and have not acquired a taste to rear up and beautify the intellectual edifice, for which an elementary education is the mere foundation? As it would be little or no use for a person to acquire the knowledge of some mechanic art, if he did not afterwards labour in it; so it would be little or no use to learn the rules of arithmetick, unless they should be applied to practical purposes; or to acquire a knowledge of geography, unless it be followed by the study of history or travels; or even to become well skilled in the art of reading, if there is no taste for the frequent and habitual exercise of this skill. Nor is it sufficient that there is simply a taste for reading—it should be for reading, that will be beneficial. Persons may read much to no profit; and, alas, many do read much to no profit—read nothing that is calculated materially to strengthen the sentiments of virtue, or secure the mind against allurements to vice—nothing that is calculated to develop the human character, by the exhibition of human conduct—nothing that is calculated to unfold the goodness or the providence of God, by the display of his works, and of the world of mankind, over which he is the sovereign Arbitrator. The persons who thus read, know so little of the real world, and of the inhabitants of the real world, that they must have an ideal world of their own—they must contemplate beings who are imaginary, and traverse regions where existence has never been called forth by creative power from the slumbers of eternity. In other words, the real world and all it contains, to them is dull and insipid.—Romance, of course, is seized on with avidity, and becomes the only object of interest.

If the reading books now used in our schools are generally thus defective in their tendency, how can the defect be supplied? To say that the lessons should contain useful information, and in a form to interest the attention and make a deep impression on the mind, is only stating what is obvious to every person, and of course needs no illustration. The enquiry then ultimately refers to the particular kind of reading lessons, that will answer these valuable purposes, opening a wide field for speculation; and what is the more difficult, it presents a subject on which there may be a great diversity of opinion. But since the Author has ventured to animadvert on this part of the usual course of education, it may reasonably be expected, that he should at least offer the result of his own reflections.

The remark has been made, that our first ideas are of sensible objects—of these, the objects of sight probably make the most

easy and indelible impression. We comprehend the almost-infinite variety of any prospect, in a momentary glance, and the imagination can revive the picture at pleasure; but a verbal description of it would be tedious, the impression faint, and the recollection difficult. Hence children very soon learn the names of objects about them—objects which they can see. And indeed how fruitless would be the attempt to teach children what a table, a chair, a window, or a door is, unless these objects can be seen! But when seen, the labour is easily accomplished. Hence we may conclude, that the first lessons in reading for children should commend themselves to the attention by signs or pictures of the objects described in the lessons. Perhaps natural history is the most abundant in suitable subjects for such exercises, although many works of art might be mentioned as well calculated to increase the variety. Let animals, with which children are usually familiar, be the subjects of the introductory lessons; and when these are used, let others, with which they are not familiar, be taken. Such a course of reading lessons would give children, in a comparatively short time, a pretty good knowledge of this part of natural history. When this is done, and a good proficiency is made in the art of reading, history may well be made the subject of the next class of reading books for schools.

The author is aware, that various objections will at once be made to history, as the subject of our school reading books. It will be said, and justly too, that these books must be few in number, and of a moderate size, since large numbers of our children and youth are unable to be at much expense in their education. And it is then asked, What, of history, can be brought into such a small compass, as to be accessible to the great body of youth in our schools? It is urged too, that a single small volume can no more than contain a compend of the history of a particular country, and that such histories are generally the most uninteresting, being but little else than chronological tables. It is known, that a particular history of a single country will require volumes of a size and expense to forbid their use in common schools: and it is known also, that the usual compends of history are not sufficiently interesting for our present purpose—they are good for certain uses—if well constructed and executed, they answer a valuable object for study, and more especially for reference and review to such as have spent much time in reading more complete works on the subject; but for reading books in schools, they are totally unsuitable—it would probably be impossible for a person to become a good reader by the use of them.

It would be indeed a visionary expectation, to calculate on seeing the youth of our schools made adepts in historical knowledge—on seeing them acquire, in a few years, and especially at

a period when all the faculties of the mind are in embryo, what might well be considered the business of a long life. No more is expected than to see them acquire a taste for reading history—to see them lay a good foundation for subsequent reading. The latter of these undoubtedly consists in a good knowledge of geography; and the former, it is taken for granted in the following Work, with little fear of being mistaken, comes from a knowledge of the most interesting portions of history. Instead, therefore, of putting into the hands of our youth a connected summary of history which is made up chiefly of dates, unless it be for regular study, give them a volume of extracts describing the most important events on record. Such extracts would abound in those extraordinary incidents, which never fail to captivate the elastic and expanding minds of the young—which never fail to interest all, whether young or old, who read them—incidents, which equal, if not surpass, the utmost efforts of imagination as displayed in Romance. Who would not be interested with the history of Tamerlane, of Ghengis Khan, of Mary of Scots, of Charles I., of the Crusades, Discovery of America, Capture of Montezuma, Conquest of Mexico, Plymouth Colony, the American Revolution, Bonaparte's Campaign in Russia; and of numerous other parts of history that might be named!

If persons, when young, become well acquainted with all such portions of history, few will have so little curiosity as not to read the remaining parts—to fill up the chasms—to connect together these prominent parts. If a painter were to draw a landscape, he would not in the first instance form complete a single object, say a tree, before the other parts were touched.—No, he would mark all the conspicuous points, then connect these points together, and then put on the finishing touches. Or, if a limner were to exhibit on canvass a human form, would he, at first, finish a leg or an arm, before the other parts were begun? No, he would first sketch all the prominent parts, then unite these parts, and then give it the colour and expression of life. Much in this way, it will be perceived, the Author would recommend that persons acquire a knowledge of history.

A few observations more will conclude this Preface, already extended to an immoderate length. It may be said by some, that a book for young persons, of the description named, will cause them to place a false estimate on human conduct—that, in the same degree as they thence fail duly to appreciate real goodness, they will become the less inclined to it; and in the same degree as they become familiarized with vice, they will view it with less abhorrence, and will consequently be the less secured against temptations to it. The Author would not deny that this may sometimes be the case; but he does maintain, that there is no necessary tendency in history, to produce these de-

leterious effects in the human character. Those who read history, must blame themselves or their teachers, if suitable moral reflections are not made as they pass along. If history were studied as it ought, the most tragical relations which disfigure its ensanguined pages might be made conducive to our instruction. If we did but reflect on the tears of the widows and orphans, and imagine ourselves to hear the groans of the wounded and dying; if we represented to ourselves the splendid and warlike appearance of an army, at its first taking the field, contrasted with the distressful spectacle of its shattered remains, after a hard fought battle, or a bloody campaign; we should be thunderstruck at the reflection, and contemplate with horror the dreadful effects of the human passions, instead of being greatly dazzled with what is called martial glory, and unduly inspired with love for the praise usually bestowed on it in history.

The names of the several persons from whose writings extracts have been made in this Work, are not annexed to those extracts, because in some instances the same article has been taken from different writers, and in other instances the phraseology has been partially altered—the former of which renders the giving of names inconvenient, and the latter might be considered an act of injustice, inasmuch as it would ascribe to the individuals named what is not properly their own. The Author, however, aiming to let the Work possess as much variety of style as possibly consistent with his main plan, has avoided introducing his own phraseology, in many instances, where the extracts made are evidently susceptible of improvement in this particular. Indeed, it has been found difficult, if not impossible, to obtain that variety connected with that approved excellency of style, which is practicable in a collection of extracts on more miscellaneous subjects. The best class of writers on history is comparatively small; and the subject admits also only a comparatively small rhetorical diversification of language. The Author nevertheless indulges the belief, that this compilation is not greatly wanting in that variety and excellency of style which are of the first importance in books for the use of schools; and, that it will be found well calculated to inspire the youthful mind with a desire for more extensive and connected reading on this useful and interesting subject.

J. L. BLAKE.

Concord, February, 1823.

THE

HISTORICAL READER.

THE CREATION.

1. (THE creation of the world) is the first transaction, with which we are presented by history, and is the most truly sublime and glorious, that imagination can conceive. But of this stupendous event, no particulars are recorded only calculated to gratify an idle curiosity. It seems to have been the great, if not the only object of the inspired penman, to make known the important truth, that the heavens and the earth were created by the immediate power of God.)

2. The earth, subsequent to its creation, was a fluid, dark, and shapeless mass of matter; but at the sovereign command of the Almighty, the cheerful light appeared; the firmament expanded, to divide the upper from the lower waters; the congregated floods retired to their destined beds, and the dry land was crowned with a rich profusion of herbage, fruits, and flowers.

3. These great occurrences, having occupied the three first days, the succeeding one was devoted to an illumination of the newly created globe—on the fourth day, the face of heaven was decorated with myriads of stars, and the greater luminaries were so disposed, as to distinguish between day and night, and to divide the seasons of the year.

4. The waters were then replenished with an abundant variety of fish; the odoriferous air was fanned by the pinions of innumerable birds; the verdant meads were stocked with cattle; and every part of the earth

was inhabited by its appropriate tribes. To complete, and truly to excel the whole, on the sixth day, God created *man* of the dust of the ground; and breathing into his body the breath of life, or immortality, caused him to become a living soul. Shortly subsequent to his own creation, Adam was thrown into a deep sleep, during which the Almighty took from his side a rib, formed it into the body of a woman, and endued her also with life and immortality.

5. When Adam first beheld the female partner of his life, finding her of his own likeness and complexion, he was struck with a secret sympathy, and exclaimed with rapture, *This is now bone of my bone and flesh of my flesh.* He easily foresaw, that the love and union which were now to take place between them, were to be lasting. The divine hand which conducted the woman to Adam, did it in the light of a matrimonial father; and having joined them together, he pronounced upon them a benediction, intimating, that they might live to see the earth replenished with a numerous progeny.

6. Thus, by the creative influence of the Eternal Spirit, were the heavens and the earth finished in the space of six days—so admirably finished—an unformed chaos changed into a system of perfect order and beauty—that the adorable Architect himself pronounced it *very good*, and *all the sons of God shouted for joy.*

7. According to the Bible, or Hebrew chronology, the creation of the world is placed in the year 4004 before the christian æra. The Chinese, Hindoos, and Egyptians, have made pretensions to a much earlier origin; but these pretensions are supported by no decisive historick documents, and must therefore be attributed to national vanity, which prompts every people to trace back their origin into the remotest antiquity, in order to give additional eclat to their nation.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first event with which history presents us?—
2. Have we any *particular* account of the creation of the world?
3. What object had the inspired penman *chiefly* in view, when writing the history of the creation?—4. What is the chronolô-

gy of the creation of the world?—5. Have any nations pretended to an origin more remote than that given to the creation of the world by the chronology of the Bible?

PARADISE.

1. To facilitate the intended happiness of our first parents, the Almighty Creator had provided for their residence a most delightful spot, called Eden. It was watered by four rivers, and from its natural fertility and the richness and variety of its productions, it was fitly called a Garden. Among its vegetable productions, were two remarkable Trees, one called the *Tree of Life*, and the other the *Tree of Knowledge*. It is supposed, that the first of these trees communicated immortality to all who should eat of it; or that it furnished a sovereign remedy against all the evils incident to the life of man; and the latter was to enable persons to distinguish between *Good* and *Evil*.

2. Into this earthly Paradise did the Almighty conduct Adam and Eve, giving them orders to take care of the garden, and to superintend the plants. He granted them permission to eat of the fruit of every tree, except of the *Tree of Knowledge of Good and Evil*. This he strictly charged them not even to touch, on the penalty of incurring his displeasure, and thereby entailing upon themselves and their descendants, mortality, disease, and death. With this small restraint, God left them in the garden of Eden, where every thing was pleasing to the sight, and accommodated to their mutual enjoyment.

3. Thus fixed in the most beautiful situation, possessed of innocence, devoid of guilt, and free from care, the happiness of our first parents seemed complete—

Perfection crown'd with wond'rous frame,
And peace and plenty smil'd around;
They felt no grief, they knew no shame,
But tasted heaven on earthly ground.

But alas ! their bliss was transient, their innocence fleeting, and short their exemption from toil and care.

4. The devil, viewing the felicity of the first human pair with those painful sensations which are natural to depravity of heart, determined to allure them from their innocence, and to stimulate them to the crime of disobedience. In consequence of this infernal design, he began by persuading Eve, through the agency of the serpent, to taste the prohibited Tree of Knowledge, telling her, that by so doing, both herself and her husband would become sensible of the difference between Good and Evil, would acquire much additional happiness, and even not be inferior, in point of wisdom, to God himself.

5. Unhappily the artifices of the serpent prevailed. Eve gazed on the tempting fruit till her appetite was inflamed ; its beautiful hue made her fancy it a most delicious food ; and, at length, she sacrificed her duty to gratify her curiosity. She stretched forth the presumptuous hand, took of the baneful fruit, and eat, to her own destruction.

——— She pluck'd, she eat ;
Earth felt the wound, and nature, from her seat,
Sighing through all her works, gave signs of woe
That all was lost.

6. Pleased with the taste of the fruit, and fancying herself already in possession of that additional happiness the serpent had promised her, she flew to Adam, and enticed him to participate in her crime.

——— He scrupled not to eat
Against his better knowledge ; not deceiv'd,
But fondly overcome with female charm.
Earth trembled from her entrails, as again
In pangs, and Nature gave a second groan ;
Sky lower'd, and mutt'ring thunder, some sad drops
Wept at completing of the mortal sin.

7. Remorse, the natural consequence of guilt, now opened their eyes to each other's nakedness. No longer shielded by innocence, from shame, they were mutually shocked at the reciprocal indecency of their own

appearance. Art was now substituted to conceal what their criminality rendered too obvious; aprons were made of fig-leaves; and they doubtless highly applauded themselves for acquiring, at the expense of their integrity, the faculty of invention, to remove difficulties which their former simplicity prevented their perceiving.

8. While they were in a state of innocence, they no sooner heard the voice of God approach them, than they ran with ecstasy to meet him, and with humble joy to welcome his gracious visits; but now their Maker was become a terror to them, and they a terror to each other. Their consciences painted their transgression in the blackest colours, all hope was banished, and nothing remained but horror and despair.

9. When, therefore, after their transgression, they heard the voice of the Lord in the garden, instead of running, with cheerfulness and joy, to meet him as before, they flew to its most retired parts, that they might conceal themselves from his sight. But the Almighty soon called them from their dark retreat; they were unable to escape the knowledge of his omniscient eye, though covered with foliage; they both appeared before him, and acknowledged their guilt.

10. The man, however, attempted to excuse himself by laying the blame to the woman, and pleaded her persuasions, as the cause of his criminality. The woman endeavoured to remove the crime from herself to the serpent; but the Almighty thought proper to make all three the objects of his distributive justice. As the serpent had been the original cause of this evil, God first passes sentence on him, which was, that he should ever after creep on the ground, and thereby become incapable of eating any food, except what was mingled with dust. (The woman was given to understand, that she had entailed upon herself sorrow and pain, and subjection to her husband.) (The punishment of Adam consisted in a life of perpetual toil and slavery,) in order to keep in due subjection those passions and appetites, to gratify which he had transgressed the divine command.

11. The awful decree being thus solemnly pronounced, as well on the author of the offence, as on the offenders themselves, the Almighty, to enhance their sense of the crime, and the tokens of his displeasure, expelled the guilty pair from the blissful regions of Paradise, and placed, at the east end of the garden, a guard of angels, not only to prevent their return, but to secure the forbidden fruit, in future, from the unhallowed hands of polluted mankind.

12. Thus, by this original pollution, fell our first parents, who, from the happiest condition that can be conceived, plunged themselves into a state of wretchedness, and thereby entailed misery on their descendants.

They eat the apple, it is true ;
We taste the wormwood and the gall ;
And to these distant ages rue
The dire effects of Adam's fall.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was the name of the garden in which Adam and Eve were placed?—2. What two remarkable trees are named as being in it?—3. Under what prohibition were Adam and Eve placed in Eden?—4. Did they comply with this prohibition?—5. What induced them to violate the law of God?—6. What was the curse pronounced on the serpent for his agency in the apostasy of our first parents?—7. What was the curse pronounced on Eve?—8. On Adam?—9. Were they permitted to remain in Paradise?—10. How were they prevented from returning into it?

AN EVENING IN PARADISE.

Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had, in her sober livery, all things clad ;
Silence accompanied ; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests
Were sunk, all but the wakeful nightingale ;
She all night long her amorous descant sung ;
Silence was pleased. Now glow'd the firmament
With living sapphires—Hesperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest ; till the moon,
Rising in clouded majesty, at length,
Apparent queen, unveil'd her peerless light,
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.

THE DELUGE.

1. THE wickedness of mankind had rapidly increased with the increasing population, and the earth was literally filled with violence; yet the forbearance of God was continued towards them; and he mercifully resolved to grant them the space of one hundred and twenty years for repentance; during which time, he declared that his Spirit should strive with man, in order to awaken him to a sense of his depravity, and eventually to reclaim him to the paths of peace and virtue.

2. It is here proper to remark, that notwithstanding the *general* corruption, one man was found perfect in his generation, and walking humbly with his God. This person was Noah, the son of Lamech, who exerted himself, on every occasion, to introduce a reformation both of worship and conduct; and to this end he undertook the laborious task of public admonition, warning his auditors of the fatal consequences that *must* result from their enormities. His zealous counsel was, however, treated with disdain, and the deluded race continued in the practice of every vice, till God is said to have been *grieved at his heart*, for the formation of such rebellious and incorrigible creatures.

3. Finding all attempts to reclaim the inhabitants of the earth to be fruitless—that they were resolved on ruin, the Almighty decreed an universal deluge that should utterly destroy them, together with the birds of the air and the beasts of the field. From this tremendous sentence, Noah and his family were excluded. This venerable patriarch, having *found grace in the eyes of the Lord*, was directed to build a certain vessel or ark, for the preservation of himself and family, and of such a quantity of animals of every species, as would be sufficient to replenish the earth again, when the threatened flood should subside.

4. In obedience to the divine command, Noah readily engaged in the work to which he was appointed. With respect to the dimensions of the ark, we read in Scripture, that its length was three hundred cubits, its breadth

fifty, and its height thirty. Its form was that of an oblong square, with a flat bottom, and a sloping roof, elevated one cubit in the middle. It consisted of three stories, each of which, excluding the thickness of the floors, might have been eighteen feet high, and was divided into separate apartments. It was, in all probability, well supplied with light and air; and though it had neither sails nor rudder, it was admirably contrived for lying steadily upon the surface of the water, and for thus preserving the lives of its various inhabitants.

5. The appointed time of vengeance being come, and the ark completed, Noah went on board, in the year of the world 1656, with his wife, his sons, and his daughters-in-law, taking with him all kinds of beasts, birds, and reptiles, by pairs and by sevens, as he was expressly commanded; while the rest of mankind, regardless of his repeated warnings, continued to indulge in luxury and dissipation, till the flood came and overwhelmed them with a swift destruction; for in the self-same day, were the fountains of the great deep broken up, the windows of heaven were opened, and the inundating torrents began to fall, which continued without intermission for forty days and forty nights. The waters also, increased gradually during the space of five months, when they rose to the elevation of twenty-seven feet above the summits of the highest mountains.

6. The irrevocable decree of heaven having been thus awfully accomplished, a wind was caused to pass over the earth, in consequence of which the waters began to assuage; and on the first day of their decrease, they sunk so considerably, that the ark rested on the mountains of Ararat. This happened on the seventeenth day of the seventh month, or the sixth of May; and by the first day of the tenth month, answering to our nineteenth of July, the tops of the neighbouring hills began to appear.

7. Towards the end of the ensuing month, Noah opened one of the windows of the ark, and sent forth a raven, which flew to and fro till the earth was dry, but afforded him no satisfactory intelligence; he,

therefore, let out a dove three successive times, allowing seven days to elapse between each excursion. The first time, she returned quickly, having found no spot sufficiently firm and dry to afford a resting place; the second time, she came back in the evening, bringing an olive branch in her mouth, as a proof that the flood was greatly abated; and the third time, she returned no more.

8. On the first day of the first month, or the twenty-third of October, the patriarch, who was now in the six hundred and first year of his age, removed the covering of his vessel, in order to take a view of the surrounding scenery, and discovered that the surface of the earth was perfectly free from water; he continued, however, in the ark, till the twenty-seventh of the second month, or the eighteenth of December, when he came forth, in pursuance of the divine command, together with his wife, his family, and every living creature which had been entrusted to his care, for one year and ten days, according to the antediluvian computation, or during the space of three hundred and sixty-five days of our present time.

QUESTIONS.

1. What effect did the increasing population of the antediluvian world have on morals?—2. Did God resolve immediately to destroy mankind for their great wickedness?—3. How long time did he allow them for repentance and reformation?—4. What righteous person was there found, at this time, on earth?—5. Did God employ him to reclaim the wicked inhabitants?—6. Did they listen to his admonitions?—7. In what way did God resolve to destroy the old world?—8. How were Noah and his family to be saved?—9. What was the form of the ark which God directed him to build?—10. What was its length?—11. Its breadth?—12. Its height?—13. In what year of the world did Noah go on board the ark?—14. How long did the incessant rains continue which caused the deluge?—15. For what length of time did the waters continue to rise?—16. How high did they rise above the summits of the highest mountains?—17. Where did the ark rest when the waters subsided?—18. In what manner did Noah ascertain when the earth had become sufficiently dry to leave the ark?—19. How long did Noah continue in the ark?—20. At what season of the year did he leave it?—21. What was his age on leaving it?

THE ANTEDILUVIANS.

1. THE history of the Antediluvians, particularly with regard to their religion, policy, arts, and sciences, would certainly be considered as a subject of great value, were it possible to expatiate upon these points with strict regard to truth; but as the sacred volume affords but little whereon we might ground our assertions, and the page of profane history is clouded with fable, we must candidly acknowledge that our remarks are founded chiefly upon conjecture.

2. With respect to the religious rites of the primeval race of men we can only venture to affirm, that they offered sacrifices, both of animals, and of the fruits of the earth; yet some writers have attempted to prove that all the patriarchs, from Adam, had certain times and places set apart for the celebration of divine worship, and devoted a portion of their property to the maintenance of the priests.

3. Their politics and civil constitutions are hid in impenetrable darkness, and consequently afford no foundation even for conjecture. It is however probable, that the patriarchal form of government was set aside by tyranny and oppression; and that this change took place much sooner among the descendants of Cain than those of Seth. We also imagine, that their communities were but few, and consisted of vast numbers of people previous to the union of the families of Seth and Cain, and that all mankind, subsequent to that imprudent junction, constituted but one great nation, divided into several disorderly associations, and living in a state of anarchy, which indisputably tended to contaminate the thoughtless race with an universal depravity of manners.

4. Even with regard to their arts and sciences, but little can be said; and they appear rather to have devoted their time to luxury and dissipation, than to useful discoveries or mental improvement. The last generation of Cain's line found out the art of working metal; and music seems to have been invented about the

same time.) Some have supposed that the science of astronomy was cultivated by the Antediluvians; but this opinion has no solid foundation;—and the erroneous opinions of those who have attributed various books to the patriarchs, Adam, Seth, and Enos, are too absurd to merit a serious refutation.

5. The antediluvian world is supposed to have been exceedingly different from that which we now inhabit, and to have been stocked with a greater number of inhabitants than the present earth is capable of containing; and indeed this idea seems tolerably well founded, when we consider the surprising length of men's lives previous to the deluge, and the numerous generations that were then contemporary!

6. Various causes have been assigned by different authors for this longevity; some imputing it to the sobriety of the Antediluvians, and the extreme simplicity of their diet—others supposing that it resulted from the peculiar excellence of the plants, herbs, and fruits, that were first appointed for the subsistence of the human race—and others asserting that it was the natural consequence of a strong and vigorous constitution.

7. Each of these opinions may be considered as *partaking* of the truth, though, in reality, they will not bear the test of *strict examination*; for if we readily admit the idea, that *some*, or even *many*, of the Antediluvians were remarkable on account of their *temperance* and *simplicity*, we must of *necessity* acknowledge, that the *majority* of them were strangers to these virtues, and especially at a time when they are said to have been *eating* and *drinking*, marrying and giving in marriage, till the flood came and swallowed them up.

8. With respect to the wholesome or nutritious virtues of the vegetable world, it may be justly supposed that they were less degenerated in those days than in the present—yet, it must at the same time be remembered, that *sin* had entered into the world; God had inflicted a *curse* upon the *ground* for man's sake; and agricultural labour was even *then* as requisite as it is *now*. We are not therefore to imagine that the natural world exhibited that brilliancy of beauty, that abundant fer-

tility, and that unspotted purity, at the time to which we advert, that literally glowed upon the *whole*, and pervaded *each constituent part*, when first created—when *man*, the image of his Creator, roved unconscious of sin or shame, amidst the matchless delights of Eden; rejoiced in the friendship of his God; and viewed with guileless raptures the subjugated tribes of inferior animals. *Then*, indeed, we may naturally suppose, that every pendent fruit which decorated the verdant branches, or swept the embroidered ground, was indeed replete with flavour and nutrition; that every blade of grass possessed inherent virtues; and that *every* plant of the earth was, in the language of its Creator, *very good*. But no sooner had Adam transgressed the divine command, and forfeited his own innocence, than creation began to languish beneath the influence of the curse; and *many* of the plants became *useless*, while others were rendered disgusting and *poisonous*. Consequently the longevity of the Antediluvians cannot be *justly* attributed to the second cause given.

9. As to the opinion, that the long lives of those men were but natural consequences of the peculiar strength of their *stamina*, or first principles of their bodily constitutions, we are willing to receive it as a *concurrent* though not an *adequate* cause } for Shem, who received his birth before the deluge, and possessed all the virtues of the antediluvian constitution, fell short of the age of his forefathers by three hundred years, because the greatest part of his life was passed after his egression from the ark.

10. From these considerations, therefore, we are inclined to impute this longevity rather to the salubrious constitution of the *antediluvian air*, than to any other cause; and upon the supposition that this air became contaminated and unwholesome after the flood, it will appear consistent that the pristine crasis of the human body should have been gradually broken; and that the life of man should consequently have been shortened, in successive ages, to the present common standard.

11. Whether men were permitted to regale on the flesh of animals before the flood, is a question that has

been long and frequently controverted. Those who imagine it was unlawful before that period, found their opinion upon God's assigning *vegetables* for food to *man* and beasts at the creation; and upon the express permission which Noah received, to eat flesh after the deluge;—and those who entertain a contrary opinion, imagine that animal food was included in the general grant of dominion given to Adam, *over the fish of the sea, the fowl of the air, and every living thing that moved upon the earth*; and indeed this supposition receives a great degree of strength from the fact, that beasts were divided into *clean* and *unclean* before the flood; and that animals were then also sacrificed to the Deity.)

12. With regard to commerce, it was, in all probability, carried on with greater facility before the flood, than afterwards; as there was but one language in the world. Yet it is evident they had no idea of navigation, and of extending their trade to remote parts, by the assistance of any kind of vessels; or otherwise *some* families might certainly have escaped the flood besides the patriarch Noah. Indeed it is sufficiently obvious, that commerce however it might be conducted, was not as necessary at that time as it has been since, not only because the wants of men have been greatly increased, in proportion to the injury which the earth and its various productions received from the overwhelming flood that was brought upon it; but also because they resided together in greater numbers, and could easily obtain every article they desired, by bartering with their nearest neighbours.

QUESTIONS.

1. Is *much* known of the religion, policy, arts and sciences of the antediluvians?—2. What can be *affirmed* of their religious rites?—3. What is *probable* as to their government?—4. When did they attain to the art of working metal?—5. Did they become acquainted with music, and when?—6. Is it supposed that the antediluvian world was different from what the world now is?—7. What circumstance renders this supposition probable?—8. What three reasons have been assigned for the longevity of the antediluvians?—9. What objection is there to its being owing to their *temperance* and *simplicity*?—10. What objection is there to its being caused by the *peculiar excellence* of their

plants, herbs, and fruits?—11. And what objection to the supposition of its being caused by natural vigour of constitution?—12. If neither of these can be considered an *adequate* cause of their longevity, to what more probable cause can we assign it?—13. Were men permitted before the flood to feed on the flesh of animals?—14. What reason can be given in favour of the supposition?—15. And what reason can be given against it?—16. Is it supposed that the antediluvians were acquainted with ship navigation, as we are?—17. Can a particular reason be assigned against the supposition, and what is it? §

THE WORLD

CONTEMPLATED AT A DISTANCE.

'Tis pleasant through the loop-holes of retreat
 To peep at such a world; to see the stir
 Of the great Babel, and not feel the crowd;
 To hear the roar she sends through all her gates
 At a safe distance, where the dying sound
 Falls a soft murmur on th' uninjur'd ear.
 Thus sitting, and surveying thus at ease
 The globe and its concerns, I seem advanc'd
 To some secure and more than mortal height,
 That liberates and exempts me from them all.
 It turns submitted to my view, turns round
 With all its generations; I behold
 The tumult and am still. The sound of war
 Has lost its terrours ere it reaches me;
 Grieves, but alarms me not. I mourn the pride
 And avarice that make man a wolf to man;
 Hear the faint echo of those brazen throats
 By which he speaks the language of his heart,
 And sigh, but never tremble at the sound.
 He travels and expatiates; as the bee
 From flower to flower, so he from land to land;
 The manners, customs, policy, of all,
 Pay contribution to the store he gleans;
 He sucks intelligence in every clime,
 And spreads the honey of his deep research
 At his return—a rich repast for me.

He travels, and I too. I tread his deck,
Ascend his topmast, through his peering eyes
Discover countries, with a kindred heart
Suffer his woes, and share in his escapes;
While fancy, like the finger of a clock,
Runs the great circuit, and is still at home.

THE TOWER OF BABEL.

1. It is not, in the least, to be doubted, that Noah and his family, for some years after the flood, continued to reside in the neighborhood of the mountains of Armenia, where the ark had rested. But his descendants, in course of time, having a numerous progeny, the greater part of them quitted this place, and, directing their course eastward, came at length to the plains of Shinar, on the banks of the river Euphrates. Attracted by the convenience of its situation, and the natural fertility of the soil, they resolved not to proceed any further, but to make this their fixed place of residence.

2. Having formed this resolution, in order to render themselves famous to future generations, they determined to erect a city, and in the city a building of such stupendous height as should be the wonder of the world. Their principal motives in doing this, were, it is supposed, to keep themselves together, in one body, that by their mutual strength and councils, as the world increased, they might bring others under their subjection, and thereby become masters of the universe.

3. The idea of the intended tower gave them the most singular satisfaction, and the novelty of the design induced them to enter upon its construction with the greatest alacrity. One inconvenience, however, arose, of which they were not at first apprised, namely, there being no stone in the country with which to build it. But this defect was soon supplied by the nature of the soil, which being clayey, they soon converted into bricks, and cemented them together with a pitchy substance, called *bitumen*, the country producing that article in great abundance.

4. As the artificers were numerous, the work was carried on with great expedition, and in a short time the walls were raised to a prodigious height. But the Almighty being dissatisfied with their proceedings, thought proper to interpose, and totally put an end to their ambitious project; so that the first of their vanity became only a monument of their folly and weakness.

5. Though the descendants of Noah were at this time exceedingly numerous, yet they spoke the same language.—In order, therefore, to render their undertaking ineffectual, and to lessen the towering hopes of these aspiring mortals, the Almighty formed the resolution of confounding their language. In consequence of this, a universal jargon took place, and the different dialects caused such a distraction of thought, that incapable of understanding or making known to each other their ideas, they were thrown into the utmost disorder.

6. By this awful stroke of divine justice, they were not only deprived of prosecuting their intended plan, but of the greatest pleasure a social being can enjoy, namely, mutual converse and agreeable intercourse. We are not, however, to suppose, that each individual had a peculiar dialect or language to himself; but only the several tribes or families, which are supposed to have been about seventy in number. These detaching themselves according to their respective dialects, left the spot, which, before the consequences of their presumption, they had considered as the most delightful on earth, and took up their temporary residences in such places as they either pitched on by choice, or were directed to by chance.

7. Thus did the Almighty not only defeat the designs of those ambitious people, but likewise accomplished his own, by having the world more generally inhabited than it otherwise could have been. The spot on which they had begun to erect their tower, was, from the judgment that attended so rash an undertaking, called *Babel* (afterwards *Babylon*) which, in the Hebrew tongue, signifies *confusion*.

8. The confusion of tongues, and dispersion of the family of Noah, happened 101 years after the flood, as is

evident from the birth of Peleg, the son of Heber (who was the great-grandson of Shem) and was born in the 101st year after that memorable period. He received his name from this singular circumstance, the word *Peleg*, in the Hebrew language, signifying *partition*, or *dispersion*.

9. The descendants of Noah being now dispersed, in process of time, from their great increase, they scattered themselves to distant parts of the earth, and, according to their respective families, settled in different parts of the world. Some took up their residence in Asia; some in Africa; and others in Europe. By what means they obtained possession of the several countries they inhabited, the sacred historian has not informed us. It is, however, natural to suppose, that their respective situations did not take place from chance, but from mature deliberation; and that a proper assignment was made of such and such places, according to the divisions and subdivisions of the different families.

10. When Babel was confounded, and the great
 Confederacy of projectors wild and vain
 Was split into diversity of tongues,
 Then, as a shepherd separates his flock,
 These to the upland, to the valley those,
 God drave asunder, and assign'd their lot
 To all the nations. Ample was the boon
 He gave them, in its distribution fair
 And equal; and he bade them dwell in peace.

QUESTIONS.

1. Is it supposed that Noah and his family continued any time near the place where the ark had rested?—2. Where did they go, on leaving this place?—3. In what way did they become determined to distinguish themselves, on settling in the plains of Shinar?—4. What inconvenience did they experience at first in building their city and tower?—5. How did they obviate the inconvenience of not having stones with which to build?—6. Did they commence their contemplated work?—7. Was God pleased with their design?—8. In what way did he manifest his displeasure, and stop their work?—9. Is it supposed, that in the confusion of language on this occasion, every individual was made to have a

dialect of his own?—10. What good effects did the Almighty accomplish from this confusion of language?—11. What is the place called, where it took place?—12. At what time was this memorable event?—13. Are we informed in what way the descendants of Noah took possession of the several countries they afterwards inhabited?—14. What is probable on this subject?

THE ASSYRIANS.

1. **THE** Assyrians, or Syrians, inhabited the country which was first settled by Ashur, a son of Shem, and afterwards taken by Nimrod, a grandson of Ham. Assyria is now a part of Persia. The Assyrian was one of the *four* universal monarchies, and was the first empire that ever existed. Her kings usually styled themselves, by way of eminence, king of kings; and it is probable, from the most correct accounts of that remote period, that, in power, they were surpassed by none, and equalled by few, if any, of the contemporary potentates.

2. Nineveh, the capital of Assyria, and Babylon, the capital of Babylonia, a province of Assyria, were two of the most memorable cities of which we have any account in history. Nineveh was built on the Tigris, and is supposed to have contained no less than a million of inhabitants. It was surrounded by a wall, one hundred feet high, and so thick that three carriages might be driven abreast on the top of it. Babylon was built over the Euphrates, and was surrounded by a wall 87 feet in thickness, 360 feet in height, and 60 miles in circumference. This city was nearly square, and contained one hundred brazen gates, twenty-five on each side.

3. The building of Nineveh has been ascribed both to Nimrod and Ninus his son; and, it is probable, that the former began, and the latter completed it. It was undoubtedly named in honour of Ninus. Babylon is said to have been built by Semiramis, the widow of Ninus. After the death of her husband, she became determined to eclipse his glory, by building a city that should surpass Nineveh. This she attempted in ea-

larging and rendering magnificent the city of Babylon; and she succeeded so well in the attempt, as to have been called by some its founder. She is represented to have employed, in this vast enterprise, two millions of men, which were collected out of all the provinces of her extensive empire.

4. Nimrod, as well as Semiramis, has been called the founder of Babylon; but, it is believed with confidence, there can be little if any doubt with the intelligent historian, that Babylon and Babel are the same. Its origin is therefore to be ascribed to the foolish vanity of those persons named in Scripture, who desired to build a tower and a city, that should render their memory immortal. It is probable, however, that this ridiculous design being defeated by such an astonishing prodigy as none could be the author of but God himself, every body abandoned the place, which had given him offence; and that Nimrod, in company with his friends and confederates, was the first who afterwards settled therein, and encompassed it with walls—beginning, in this place, the powerful empire, which has excited the interest of all succeeding ages, and of which he was the first chief.

5. The kings of Assyria were numerous, which necessarily resulted from the long continuance of the empire; yet nothing besides the names of a large part of them is transmitted to us. The reign of Sennacherib may be considered, on some accounts, the most interesting of any which history has preserved. This prince's ambition and power seemed to threaten the neighbouring nations, with that oppression, which nothing but the will of God could resist. After ravaging Egypt, he returned and besieged Jerusalem. But, while encamped before that place, a *destroying angel*, to use the language of Scripture, in one night, slew one hundred and eighty-five thousand of his army. He returned to his own country greatly chagrined; and to divert the attention of his subjects from this disgrace, he exercises on them every species of cruelty; so that his own family became disgusted at his conduct, and shortly assassinated him in the temple, while prostrated before his god Nisroch.

6. Few facts are known of the Assyrian empire ; and some have even doubted, but without reason, the existence of it. But notwithstanding the obscurity in which the history of this nation is involved, it is generally believed, that the empire was founded about the year 1800 of the world, and continued about fourteen hundred years from its foundation—or about seventeen hundred, if we reckon to the destruction of Babylon. The Assyrian empire, however, did not exist in its zenith of power this length of time ; for it was at first, like most nations, small, and rose from that condition by degrees. Besides, it did not long retain the power and political importance which it thus acquired. Intestine divisions, and provincial apostacies frequently weakened its strength ; and, finally, the Babylonians and Medes, inhabitants of two provinces, united against and destroyed Nineveh, the capital, and became themselves, in a measure, distinct and independent nations.

7. Babylon, like Nineveh, soon fell into the hands of its enemies. In the year of the world 3466, Cyrus the king of Persia, took the city of Babylon, by turning the river Euphrates, and marching his troops through its former channel, while the people were celebrating a grand festival. From this period, Babylon experienced a rapid decay, till it was taken by Alexander the Great, about two hundred years after. He, with a view of making it the seat of his empire, had determined to restore it to its ancient splendour : but dying suddenly, the work ceased. His successors abandoning this proud capital for ever, it continued to decline, till it became desolate. Not the smallest vestige of it now remains ; and the exact place where it stood is unknown.

8. The splendour and greatness of Nineveh and Babylon, as of all other great cities of early times, consisted chiefly in their public buildings. The dwellings of the great mass of the people, were little better than wretched hovels—without, unornamented ; and within, unfurnished. Indeed, Nineveh and Babylon contained little worthy of notice, except their walls, towers, temples, palaces, and superb structures of royalty. How incomparably more magnificent are the modern cities of

London or Paris, when viewed as the abodes of men! Here are seen, monuments of every art and science; the astonishing effects of commerce; opulence and independence reigning among all classes; the diffusion of knowledge; the reign of science; freedom and plenty.

9. The Assyrian empire rose, flourished, and fell, while the world was in its infancy. Few maxims of its government have reached our times; few incidents have escaped oblivion; and those which have, are doubtless tinctured with the stream of tradition, passing through long and bewildering tracks of time. From what we can gather from such dubious lights, we are led to conclude that the fabric of ancient monarchical governments was very simple. It may be expressed in a few words, sovereign power, and absolute subjection. Where the monarch chanced to be an amiable character, the condition of the subject was very tolerable; but power so unrestrained in the hands of a bad man, produced the most dreadful tyranny.

QUESTIONS.

1. Of what country is now ancient Assyria a part?—2. Who first settled it?—3. Who next took possession of it?—4. What was the political importance of Assyria?—5. What title did her kings assume?—6. What two memorable cities did Assyria contain?—7. Where was Nineveh situated?—8. How was it surrounded?—9. How many inhabitants did it contain?—10. Where was Babylon situated?—11. What was its form?—12. How large its circumference?—13. What was the height of the wall that surrounded it?—14. Under whose direction was Nineveh built?—15. What was the origin of Babylon?—16. Who is supposed to have taken possession of Babel or Babylon, after the confusion of language?—17. Who raised Babylon to its most renowned state?—18. Why did Semiramis thus enlarge and adorn this city?—19. How many persons is she said to have employed in the work?—20. What may be said generally of the Assyrian kings?—21. Which one of them, whose life and reign are recorded, is deserving of particular notice?—22. What important circumstances particularly distinguished the reign of Sennacherib?—23. What was the effect of his defeat, when attempting the reduction of Jerusalem?—24. At what time did the Assyrian empire commence?—25. How long did it exist?—26. Who took and destroyed Nineveh?—27. Who took Babylon?—28. How was its conquest effected?—29. When was it?—30. After

the conquest of Babylon by Cyrus, who attempted to make it the capital of his empire?—31. What was its condition after the death of Alexander?—32. Does it now exist?—33. Is the exact place of its situation known to us?—34. How do Nineveh and Babylon compare with modern cities?

THE RUINS OF BABYLON.

THE many coloured domes*
 Yet wore one dusty hue,
 The cranes upon the Mosque
 Kept their night-clatter still;
 When through the gate the early traveller pass'd,
 And when, at evening o'er the swampy plain
 The bittern's boom came far,
 Distinct in darkness seen,
 Above the low horizon's lingering light
 Rose the near ruins of old Babylon.
 Once, from her lofty walls, the charioteer
 Look'd down on swarming myriads; once she flung
 Her arches o'er Euphrates' conquered tide,
 And through her brazen portals when she pour'd
 Her armies forth, the distant nations look'd
 As men who watch the thunder-cloud in fear
 Lest it should burst above them.—She was fallen!
 The queen of cities, Babylon, was fallen!
 Low lay her bulwarks—the black scorpion basked
 In palace courts—within the sanctuary
 The she-wolf hid her whelps.

Is yonder huge and shapeless heap, what once
 Hath been the ærial gardens' height on height,
 Rising, like Media's mountains, crown'd with wood,
 Work of imperial dotage? Where the fane
 Of Belus? Where the golden image now,
 Which, at the sound of dulcimer and lute,
 Cornet and sackbut, harp and psaltery,
 The Assyrian slaves ador'd?

* Of Bagdad.

A labyrinth of ruins, Babylon
 Spreads o'er the blasted plain.
 The wandering Arab never sets his tent
 Within her walls. The shepherd eyes afar
 Her evil towers, and devious drives his flock.
 Alone unchang'd, a free and bridgeless tide,
 Euphrates rolls along,
 Eternal nature's work.

Through the broken portal,
 Over weedy fragments,
 Thalaba went his way.
 Cautious he trod, and felt
 The dangerous ground before him with his bow.
 The jackal started at his steps;
 The stork, alarmed at sound of man,
 From her broad nest upon the old pillar top,
 Affrighted, fled on flapping wings;
 The adder in her haunts disturb'd,
 Lanc'd at the intruding staff her arrowy tongue.

Twilight and moonshine, dimly mingling, gave
 An awful light obscure—
 Evening not wholly clos'd—
 The moon still pale and faint,—
 An awful light obscure,
 Broken by many a mass of blackest shade;
 Long columns stretching dark through weeds and moss;
 Broad length of lofty wall,
 Whose windows lay in light,
 And of their former shape, low-arch'd or square,
 Rude outline on the earth
 Figured, with long grass fringed.

Reclin'd against a column's broken shaft,
 Unknowing whitherward to bend his way,
 He stood and gaz'd around.
 The ruins closed him in—
 It seem'd as if no foot of man
 For ages had intruded there—
 He stood and gaz'd awhile,

Musing on Babel's pride, and Babel's fall;
 Then, through the ruin'd street,
 And through the farther gate,
 He pass'd in silence on.

THE EGYPTIANS.

1. THE Egyptians are among the earliest nations of which we have any account. The Mosaic writings represent Egypt, about 436 years after the flood, a flourishing and well regulated kingdom. This circumstance is sufficient evidence, that Egypt was peopled soon after the flood, in order to have become a *well regulated* kingdom, at the time mentioned by the inspired writer. The nature of the country also itself affords a presumption of the great antiquity of the empire, and its early civilization. From the fertilizing effects of the waters of the Nile, it is probable that agriculture would be more early practised here, than in regions less favoured by nature.

2. Although the Egyptian history is much connected with fable, it is pretty well ascertained, that the Egyptians were considered as the most enlightened people in the world; and that the other ancient nations were much indebted to them for their knowledge in arts and sciences. The Egyptians instructed the Greeks—the Greeks performed the same office to the Romans—and the latter have transmitted much of that knowledge to the world, of which we are in possession to this day. The Egyptians were probably the first who made any considerable, if not the first who made any advances in Geometry, Astronomy, and Medicine; and it is generally supposed, they made no mean proficiency in Architecture, Painting, and Sculpture.

3. The government of Egypt was a hereditary monarchy. The powers of the monarch were limited by constitutional laws; yet in many respects his authority was extremely despotical. The penal laws were uncommonly severe. Funeral rites were not confer-

red, till an examination was had, and a judicial decree passed approving the character of the deceased. The characters even of the sovereigns were subjected to this inquiry. There was also an extraordinary regulation in Egypt regarding the borrowing of money. The borrower gave in pledge the body of his father, which was deprived of funeral rites if he failed to redeem it.

4. The husbandmen devoted their whole attention to agriculture; and the son continually succeeded the father in his occupation—thus they became the most famous for tillage, of any people in the world. The shepherds also followed the same vocation from one generation to another, and consequently attained to great skill in pastoral concerns, endeavouring to vie with each other in contrivances for the increase of their flocks. The same law which compelled the descendants of the shepherd and husbandman to follow the vocation of their ancestors, extended to arts and trades of every description; for every Egyptian was obliged to take up his father's employment, and to apply himself wholly to that, without presuming to intermeddle with any other.

5. The Egyptians had a great number of gods of different ranks and orders—the two principal ones were Osiris and Isis, supposed to have been the sun and moon, whose influences preserved and governed the world. They reckoned these two planets the great causes of generation and nutrition, and the sources from whence the other parts of nature, which they also regarded as deities, were derived. And notwithstanding their attainments in science, this people was so grossly idolatrous, that, exclusive of the worship they paid their pretended gods, they actually bestowed divine honours on animals and vegetables of almost every description.

6. It is unanimously agreed, by historians, that Menes, who in Scripture is called Misraim, the second son of Ham, was the first person who swayed the Egyptian sceptre. A large number of the kings of Egypt, like those of other ancient nations, are only known to us by their names. Herodotus, the Grecian historian, mentions that Egypt had a catalogue of three hundred and

thirty monarchs, extending from Menes to Moeris, and that none of them, except Nitocris, an Ethiopian woman, has done any thing worthy of being recorded.

7. The Egyptians continued a distinct nation, and were governed by their own kings, till subjected to the Persians by Cambyses. But they were soon delivered from Persian tyranny, by Alexander, and annexed to his own extensive empire. From the time of their being subdued by Cambyses, to the death of Alexander, their history is much blended with that of the Persians and Greeks. After the death of Alexander, Egypt was governed by a succession of kings, for nearly two hundred years; and was then reduced to the condition of a Roman province.

8. Few nations have been more subject to the caprice and oppression of their neighbours, than the Egyptians. Although fallen from the political eminence that she once held, Egypt derived but little security, against molestation and oppression, from her adversity. About seven hundred years after being made a Roman province, it was conquered by the Saracens. Since that period, it has experienced various changes; and is, nominally, at present, under the controul of the Turks.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the antiquity of the Egyptians?—2. What was the condition of the Egyptians, 436 years after the flood, according to the Scripture account of them?—3. What may be inferred from their being a well regulated kingdom at that period?—4. What presumptive evidence does the nature of the country furnish, that Egypt was settled at an early period?—5. What is the state of the Egyptian history?—6. In what were the Egyptians superior to the contemporary nations?—7. How has the learning of the Egyptians been transmitted to us?—8. Of what sciences were the Egyptians considered the discoverers, or if not the discoverers, the first who cultivated them to any considerable degree?—9. In what arts did they make proficiency?—10. What was the government of Egypt?—11. What singular custom had they, relative to the interment of the dead?—12. And what in regard to the borrowing of money?—13. How was the employment or occupations of the Egyptians regulated?—14. What was their religion?—15. What were the names of their two principal deities?—16. Who was the first king of Egypt, and by what name is he

known in Scripture?—17. Is much known of the Egyptian kings generally?—18. What does Herodotus say of them?—19. By whom were the Egyptians successively conquered?—20. What is the state of their history from the time of their reduction by Cambyzes, to the death of Alexander?—21. Under whose controul is Egypt at the present time?

THE EGYPTIAN PYRAMIDS.

1. THE Pyramids of Egypt are well entitled to a place among the most interesting curiosities in the world. The principal ones stand opposite Cairo, on the west side of the river Nile. They are built of stones, which overleap each other, and thus form steps from the bottom to the top. The perpendicular height of the largest is about 500 feet, and the area of its basis contains nearly 500,000 square feet, or something more than eleven English acres of ground. Some idea may be formed of the cost and labour in the structure of this pyramid, from the fact that thirty years were spent in building it, and that 100,000 men were constantly employed on the work.

2. Such were the famous Egyptian pyramids, which, by their figure as well as size, have triumphed over the injuries of time and the Barbarians. But whatever efforts men make, their own nothingness will always appear. These pyramids were tombs; and there is still to be seen, in the middle of the largest, an empty sepulchre, cut out of entire stone, about three feet deep and broad, and a little above six feet long. Thus all this bustle, all this expense, and all the labours of so many thousand men, ended in procuring a prince, in this vast and almost boundless pile of buildings, a little vault six feet in length. Besides, the kings, who built these pyramids, had it not in their power to be buried in them, and so did not enjoy the sepulture they had built. The public hatred which they incurred, by reason of their unheard-of cruelties to their subjects, in laying such heavy tasks upon them, occasioned their being interred in some obscure place, to prevent their

bodies from being exposed to the fury and vengeance of the populace.

3. This last circumstance, of which historians have taken particular notice, teaches us what judgment we ought to pass on these edifices, so much boasted of by the ancients. It is but just to remark and esteem the noble genius which the Egyptians had for architecture; a genius that prompted them, from the earliest times, and before they could have any models to imitate, to aim in all things at the grand and magnificent; and to be intent on real beauties, without deviating in the least from a noble simplicity, in which the highest perfection of the art consists. But what idea ought we to form of those princes, who considered as something grand the raising, by a multitude of hands, and by the help of money, immense structures, with the sole view of rendering their names immortal; and who did not scruple to destroy thousands of their subjects to satisfy their vain glory! They differed very much from the Romans, who sought to immortalize themselves, by works of a magnificent kind, but, at the same time, of public utility.

4. Pliny gives us, in a few words, a just idea of these pyramids, when he calls them a foolish and useless ostentation of the wealth of Egyptian kings; and adds, that, by a just punishment, their memory is buried in oblivion, historians not agreeing among themselves about the names of those who first raised those vain monuments. In a word, according to the judicious remark of Diodorus, the industry of the architects of those pyramids is no less valuable and praiseworthy, than the design of the Egyptian kings contemptible and ridiculous.

5. But what we should most admire in these ancient monuments, is the true and standing evidence they give of the skill of the Egyptians in astronomy; that is a science which seems incapable of being brought to perfection, but by a long series of years, and a great number of observations. It has been found, that the four sides of the great pyramid named, were turned exactly to the four quarters of the world; and conse-

quently showed the true meridian of that place. Now, as so exact a situation was in all probability purposely pitched upon by those who piled up this huge mass of stones, above three thousand years ago, it follows, that during so long a space of time, there has been no alteration in the heavens in that respect, or, which amounts to the same thing, in the poles of the earth or the meridians.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where do the principal pyramids stand?—2. Of what and how are they constructed?—3. What is the height of the largest?—4. What is the extent of its basis?—5. How long time was spent in building it?—6. How many men were employed about the work?—7. For what were these pyramids designed?—8. Were they used for the purposes for which they were built?—9. Why were they not?—10. Is it known for a certainty who were the first projectors of the pyramids?—11. How did the Romans differ from the Egyptians in works of magnificence and aggrandizement?—12. What is most to be admired in the pyramids?—13. What astronomical fact do they furnish?

THE FALLING TOWER.

MARK ye the tower, whose lonely halls
Re-echo to yon falling stream?

Mark ye its bare and crumbling walls,
While slowly fades the sinking beam?

There, oft, when eve, in silent trance,
Hears the lorn red-breast's plaintive moan;
Time, casting round a cautious glance,
Heaves from its base some mould'ring stone.

There, though in time's departed day,
War wav'd his glitt'ring banners high;
Though many a minstrel pour'd the lay,
And many a beauty tranc'd the eye—

Yet never midst the gorgeous scene,
Midst the proud feasts of splendid power,
Shone on the pile a beam serene,
So bright as gilds its falling hour.

Oh ! thus, when life's gay scenes shall fade,
And pleasure lose its wonted bloom,
When creeping age shall bare my head,
And point me to the silent tomb ;

Then may religion's hallow'd flame
Shed on my mind its mildest ray,
And bid it seek, in purer frame,
One bright eternity of day.

THE RIVER NILE.

1. The overflowing of the Nile procures every advantage, and supplies the want of rain, which never falls in Egypt. This river has its source in the mountains of Abyssinia, from whence it does not arrive in Egypt till it has been precipitated over seven cataracts, with a noise that is heard several leagues. It begins to swell in the month of May, and by a gradual increase, which is almost imperceptible at first, it arrives at a sufficient height to overflow the country, and remains in that state from the month of June till October.

2. The ancients, who were ignorant of the causes of the inundation, have assigned some fabulous reasons, which will always be the case, when people substitute conjectures instead of facts. At present, we know, that it rains in Ethiopia five months in the year, from April to September, which is the secret of the overflowing of the Nile. And the precious mud which it brings along with it produces the amazing fertility of Egypt. Thus lands, which are naturally dry and sandy, become the best soil in the world.

3. The husbandman in this country, never tires himself with holding the plough, or breaking the clods of the earth. As soon as the Nile retires, he has nothing to do but to turn up the earth, and temper it with a little sand, in order to lessen its rankness ; after which he sows it with great ease, and with little or no expense. Two months after, it is covered with all sorts of corn

and pulse. The Egyptians generally sow in October and November, according as the waters draw off; and their harvest is in March and April. The same land, in one year, produces three or four different kinds of crops. Lettuces and cucumbers are sown first; then corn; and after harvest, several kinds of pulse, which are peculiar to Egypt.

4. As the riches of Egypt depend on the inundation of the Nile, all the circumstances and different degrees of its increase have been carefully considered; and by a long series of regular observations, made during many years, the inundation itself discovered what kind of harvest the ensuing year was likely to produce. The kings had placed at Memphis a measure on which these different increases were marked; and from thence, notice was given to all the rest of Egypt, the inhabitants of which knew by that means, before hand, what they might fear or promise themselves from the harvest.

5. The same custom is preserved to this day at Grand Cairo. In the court of a mosque, there stands a pillar on which are marked the degrees of the Nile's increase; and common criers every day proclaim in all parts of the city, how high it is risen. The tribute paid to the Grand Seignior for the lands, is settled by the inundation. The day it rises to such a height, is kept as a grand festival, and solemnized with fire-works, feasting, and all the demonstrations of public rejoicing; and in the remote ages, the overflowing of the Nile was always attended with an universal joy throughout all Egypt, that being the foundation of its happiness.

6. There cannot be a finer sight than Egypt at two seasons of the year. For if a man ascends some mountain, or one of the largest pyramids of Grand Cairo, in the months of July and August, he beholds a vast sea, in which numberless towns and villages appear, with several causeways leading from place to place; the whole interspersed with groves and fruit trees, whose tops only are visible; all which forms a delightful prospect. This view is bounded by mountains and woods, which terminate, at the utmost distance the eye can discover, the most beautiful horizon that can be imagin-

ed. On the contrary, in winter, that is to say, in the months of January and February, the whole country is like one continued scene of beautiful meadows, whose verdure, enamelled with flowers, charms the eye. The spectator beholds, on every side, flocks and herds dispersed over all the plains with infinite numbers of husbandmen and gardeners. The air is then perfumed by the great quantity of blossoms on the orange, lemon, and other trees; and is so pure, that a wholesomer or more agreeable is not found in the world; so that nature being then dead as it were in all other climates, seems to be alive only for so delightful an abode.

7. Long has my curious soul, from early youth,
Toil'd in the noble search of sacred truth;
But still no views have urg'd my ardour more,
Than Nile's remotest fountain to explore.

Then say, what source the famous stream supplies,
And bids it at revolving periods rise;
Shew me that head from whence, since time begun,
The long succession of his waves has run.

This let me know, and all my toils shall cease,
The sword be sheath'd, and earth be blessed with peace.

QUESTIONS.

1. What supplies the want of rain in Egypt?—2. What occasions the inundations of the Nile?—3. At what time does it begin to rise, and what time does it continue to overflow the country?—4. Why do the inundations of the Nile produce so great fertility in the soil of Egypt?—5. At what time do the Egyptians generally sow their seed?—6. Do they obtain more than one crop?—7. In what way are they able to determine the quantity of crops beforehand?

PROGRESS OF WRITING.

1. PICTURES were undoubtedly the first essay towards writing. Imitation is so natural to man, that in all ages, and among all nations, some methods have obtained of copying or tracing the likeness of sensible objects. Those methods would be soon employed by men, for

giving some imperfect information to others at a distance, of what had happened; or for preserving the memory of facts, which they sought to record. Thus, to signify that one man killed another, they drew the figure of one man stretched upon the earth, and of another standing by him with a deadly weapon in his hand.

2. We find, in fact, that when America was first discovered, this was the only sort of writing known in the kingdom of Mexico. By historical pictures, the Mexicans are said to have transmitted the memory of the most important transactions of their empire. These, however, must have been extremely imperfect records; and the nations, who had no other, must have been very gross and rude. Pictures could do no more than delineate external events. They could neither exhibit the connexions of them, nor describe such qualities as were not visible to the eye, nor convey an idea of the dispositions or words of men.

3. To supply, in some degree, this defect, there arose, in process of time, the invention of what are called hieroglyphical characters; which may be considered as the second stage of the art of writing. Hieroglyphics consist in certain symbols, which are made to stand for invisible objects, on account of an analogy or resemblance, which some symbols were supposed to bear to the objects. Thus, an eye, was the hieroglyphical symbol of knowledge; a circle, of eternity, which has neither beginning nor end. Hieroglyphics, therefore, were a more refined and extensive species of painting. Pictures delineated the resemblance of external visible objects, by analogies taken from the external world.

4. Egypt was the country where this sort of writing was most studied, and brought into a regular art. In hieroglyphics, they conveyed all the boasted wisdom of their priests. According to the properties which they ascribed to animals, or qualities with which they supposed natural objects to be endued, they pitched upon them to be the emblems or hieroglyphics of moral objects; and employed them in their writing for that end. Thus, ingratitude was denominated by a viper;

imprudence, by a fly; wisdom, by an ant; victory, by a hawk; a dutiful child, by a stork; a man universally shunned, by an eel, which they supposed to be found in company with no other fish. Sometimes they joined together two or more of these hieroglyphical characters; as, a serpent with a hawk's head, to denote nature, with God presiding over it.

5. From hieroglyphics, or symbols of things invisible, writing advanced, among some nations, to simple arbitrary marks, which stood for objects, though without any resemblance or analogy to the objects signified. Of this nature, was the method of writing among the Peruvians. They made use of small cords of different colours; and by knots on these, of various sizes, and differently ranged, they contrived signs for giving information, and communicating their thoughts to one another.

6. Of this nature, also, are the written characters which are used to this day throughout the great empire of China. The Chinese have no alphabet of letters, or simple sounds, which compose their words. But every single character which they use in writing, is significant of an idea; it is a mark that stands for some one thing or object. By consequence, the number of their characters must be immense. It must correspond to the whole number of objects or ideas, which they have occasion to express; that is, to the whole number of words which they employ in speech. They are said to have seventy thousand of these characters. To read and write them to perfection, is the study of a whole life; which subjects learning among them to infinite disadvantage, and must have greatly retarded the progress of all science.

QUESTIONS.

1. What was probably the first essay towards writing?—2. How would one, killing another, have been represented?—3. Were pictures a perfect representation of facts?—4. What method of writing next succeeded pictures?—5. What are hieroglyphics?—6. How was knowledge represented?—7. How was eternity?—8. Where was this sort of writing most used?—9. How did the Egyptians represent ingratitude?—10. How imprudence?—11. How wisdom?—12. How victory?—13. How a dutiful

child?—14. How a man universally shunned?—15. What method of writing succeeded hieroglyphics, and was used by the Peruvians?—16. What nation now has no other language than arbitrary characters?—17. How many of these characters are the Chinese said to have?

THE TROJAN WAR.

1. It is generally agreed, that a hereditary enmity had subsisted between the Greeks and Trojans. Paris, the son of Priam, the most beautiful man of his time, having been allured by the fame of Helen, the queen of Sparta, went over into Greece, and visited the Spartan court. Helen is celebrated by the poets, as possessing every personal charm in its highest perfection, and as the most perfect beauty of ancient times. Her susceptible heart was too easily captivated by the artful address and polished manners of the perfidious Paris. She listened to his insinuations, and, lost to a sense of honour and duty, she made her escape with him, and took refuge amidst the towers of Troy.

2. The king of Sparta, stung with the treachery of his beauteous queen, whom he adored, and enraged at the baseness and perfidy of the Trojan prince, to whom he had shown all the rights of hospitality, loudly complained of the injury, and appealed to the justice of his countrymen. His brother Agamemnon, the most powerful prince of Greece, seconded his complaints, and used his influence and authority to rouse the resentment of the whole extensive confederation. He succeeded; for the princes and people of Greece, no less wounded in their pride than stung with a sense of the atrocious villany, determined to extinguish the flames of their resentment in the blood of Priam and his people, who refused to restore the illustrious fugitive.

3. A powerful army was accordingly sent to wage war with the Trojans; but the enterprise was found to be attended with unforeseen difficulties. The Trojans were a brave and gallant people, of considerable resources, and very great courage. Hector, the son of Priam,

equalled only by Achilles, commanded the Trojans, and often disputed the field of victory, with invincible bravery, and various success; and when, after the death of Hector, the Trojans could no longer keep the field, the city of Troy was defended by lofty towers and impregnable walls.

4. The fortune of Greece prevailed; not however by arms, but by stratagem. The Greeks, worn out by a war of ten years, determined to risk their hopes on one desperate effort, which, if successful, would end the war in victory; if not, would exterminate all hope of conquest, for the present, if not forever. They made preparations for returning home, embarked in their ships, and set sail; but they left near the city a wooden horse of vast size, in which was inclosed a band of their bravest heroes. This image, they pretended as an offering to the goddess Minerva, to be placed in the Trojan citadel. To give effect to this stratagem, Sinon was despatched over to the Trojans, with an artful and fictitious story, pretending he had made his escape from the Greeks. The superstition of the times gave them complete success. The whim struck the Trojans favourably. They laid open their walls, and, by various means, dragged the baneful monster, pregnant with destruction, into the city.

5. That night was spent in festivity through Troy. Every guard was withdrawn; all threw aside their arms; and, dissolved in wine, amusement, pleasure, and repose, gave full effect to the hazardous enterprise of the hardy Greeks. The fleet, in the night time, drew back to the shore; the men landed and approached the city; the heroes in the wooden horse sallied forth, killed what few they met, opened the city-gates, and the Greeks entered. The night, which was begun in feasting and carousal, ended in conflagration and blood. The various parts of this daring plan, liable to great uncertainties and embarrassments, were concentrated and made effectual by the signal of a torch shown from a conspicuous tower by Helen herself, the perfidious beauty, who had caused the war.

6. Never was national vengeance more exemplary, or ruin more complete. The destruction of Troy took place 1184 years before the Christian era. This fall of the Trojan empire was final. Independence and sovereignty never returned to those delightful shores; nor has that country since made any figure in history. It continued to be possessed and colonized by the Greeks, while they flourished, and followed the fortunes and revolutions of the great empires.

7. If the charms of Helen proved the destruction of Troy, yet the Greeks themselves, though they were able to punish her seducer, had little reason to boast of their conquest, or glory in their revenge. On their return, their fleets were dispersed, and many of their ships wrecked on dangerous coasts. Some of them wandered through long voyages, and settled in foreign parts. Some became pirates, and infested the seas with formidable depredations. A few, and but a few of them, returned to their homes, where fortunes equally disastrous followed them. Their absence, for a course of years, had quite altered the scene of things; as it had opened the way to conspiracies, usurpations, and exterminating revolutions. Their vacant thrones had been filled by usurpers; and their dominions, left defenceless, had fallen a prey to every rapacious plunderer. The states of Greece, which, at the beginning of the Trojan war, were rising fast to prosperity, power, and happiness, were overwhelmed with calamities, and seemed returning rapidly to savage barbarity.

QUESTIONS.

1. What occasioned the Trojan war?—2. Who commanded the Trojans?—3. How was Troy finally taken?—4. When did the destruction of Troy take place?—5. By whom was it then possessed?—6. What effect had the Trojan war upon the prosperity of the Greeks?

BATTLE OF THEMOPYLÆ.

1. THERMOPYLÆ is a strait or narrow pass of mount Œta, between Thessaly and Phocis, but 25 feet broad,

which therefore might be defended by a small number of forces, and which was the only way through which the Persian army could enter Achaia, and advance to besiege Athens. This was the place where the Grecian army thought fit to wait for the enemy—the person who commanded it was Leonidas, one of the two kings of Sparta. The whole Grecian forces, joined together, amounted only to 11,200 men, of which number (4000) only were employed at Thermopylæ to defend the pass. But these soldiers, says Pausanias the historian, were all determined, to a man, either to conquer or die; and what is there that an army of such resolution is not able to effect!

2. Xerxes, in the mean time, was upon his march; and as he advanced near the straits of Thermopylæ, he was strangely surprised to find that they were prepared to dispute his passage. He had always flattered himself, that on the first hearing of his arrival, the Grecians would betake themselves to flight; nor could he ever be persuaded to believe, what Demaratus had told him from the beginning of his project, that at the first pass he came to, he would find his whole army stopped by an handful of men. He sent out a spy to take a view of the enemy. The spy brought him word, that he found the Lacedæmonians out of their entrenchments, and that they were diverting themselves with military exercises, and combing their hair—this was the Spartan manner of preparing themselves for battle.

3. Xerxes, still entertaining some hopes of their flight, waited four days on purpose to give them time to retreat; and in this interval of time, he used his utmost endeavours to gain Leonidas, by making him magnificent promises, and assuring him that he would make him master of all Greece, if he would come over to his party. Leonidas rejected his proposal with scorn and indignation. Xerxes, having afterwards wrote to him to deliver up his arms, Leonidas, in a style and spirit truly laconical, answered him in these words, “Come and take them.” Nothing remained but to prepare themselves to engage the Lacedæmonians. Xerxes first commanded his Median forces to march against them,

with orders to take them all alive, and bring them all to him. These Medes were not able to stand the charge of the Grecians; and being shamefully put to flight, they showed, says Herodotus, that Xerxes had a great many men, and but few soldiers. The next that were sent to face the Spartans, were those Persians called the Immortal Band, which consisted of 10,000 men, and were the best troops in the whole army. But these had no better success than the former.

4. Xerxes, out of all hopes of being able to force his way through troops so determined to conquer or die, was extremely perplexed, and could not tell what resolution to take; when an inhabitant of the country came to him, and discovered a secret path to the top of an eminence, which overlooked and commanded the Spartan forces. He quickly despatched a detachment thither; which, marching all night, arrived there at break of day, and possessed themselves of that advantageous spot.) The Greeks were soon apprised of this misfortune; and Leonidas, seeing that it was now impossible to repulse the enemy, obliged the rest of the allies to retire, but staid himself with his 300 Lacedæmonians, all resolved to die with their leader; who being told by the oracle, that either Lacedæmon or her king must necessarily perish, determined, without the least difficulty or hesitation, to sacrifice himself for his country.

5. The Spartans lost all hopes either of conquering or escaping, and looked upon Thermopylæ as their burying place. The king exhorting his men to take some nourishment, and telling them that they should sup together with old Pluto, they set up a shout of joy, as if they had been invited to a banquet; and, full of ardour, advanced with their king to battle. The shock was exceedingly violent and bloody. Leonidas himself was one of the first that fell. The endeavours of the Lacedæmonians to defend his dead body, were incredible. At length, not vanquished, but oppressed by numbers, they all fell except one man, who escaped to Sparta, where he was treated as a coward and traitor to his country, and nobody would keep company or converse with him. But soon afterwards, he made a glorious

amend for his fault, at the battle of Plataea, where he distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner.—Xerxes, enraged to the last degree against Leonidas, for daring to make head against him, caused his dead body to be hung upon a gallows, and made the intended dishonour of his enemy his own immortal disgrace.

6. Xerxes lost in that affair above 20,000 men, among whom were two of the king's brothers. He was very sensible, that so great a loss, which was a manifest proof of the courage of their enemies, was capable of alarming and discouraging his soldiers. In order, therefore, to conceal the knowledge of it from them, he caused all his men that were killed in that action, except 1,000, whose bodies he ordered to be left upon the field, to be thrown together into large holes, which were secretly made, and covered over afterwards with earth and herbs. This stratagem succeeded very ill; for when the soldiers in the fleet, being curious to see the field of battle, obtained leave to come thither for that purpose, it served rather to discover his own littleness of soul, than to conceal the number of the slain.

7. Dismayed with a victory that had cost him so dear, he asked Demaratus, if the Lacedæmonians had many such soldiers. That prince told him, that the Spartan republic had a great many cities belonging to it, of which all the inhabitants were exceeding brave; but that the inhabitants of Lacedæmon, who were properly called Spartans; and who were about 8,000 in number, surpassed all the rest in valour, and were all of them such as those who had fought under Leonidas.

8. The action of Leonidas, with his 300 Spartans, was not the effect of rashness or despair; but was a wise and noble conduct, as Diodorus Siculus has taken care to observe, in the magnificent encomium upon that famous engagement, to which he ascribes the success of all the ensuing victories and campaigns. Leonidas, knowing that Xerxes marched at the head of the forces of the east, in order to overwhelm and crush a little country by the dint of his numbers, rightly conceived, from the superiority of his genius and understanding,

that if they pretended to make the success of that war consist in opposing force to force, and numbers to numbers, all the Grecian nations together would never be able to equal the Persians, or to dispute the victory with them; that it was therefore necessary to point out to Greece another means of safety and preservation, whilst she was under these alarms: and that they ought to shew the whole universe, who had all their eyes upon them, what glorious things may be done, when greatness of mind is opposed to force of body, true courage and bravery against blind impetuosity, the love of liberty against tyrannical oppression, and a few disciplined veteran troops against a confused multitude, though ever so numerous.

9. These brave Lacedæmonians thought it became them, who were the choicest soldiers of the chief people of Greece, to devote themselves to certain death, in order to make the Persians sensible how difficult it is to reduce freemen to slavery; and to teach the rest of Greece, by their example, either to vanquish or to perish. The event proved the justness of such sentiments. That illustrious example of courage astonished the Persians, and gave new spirit and vigour to the Greeks. The lives then of this heroic leader and his brave troops were not thrown away, but usefully employed; and their death was attended with a double effect, more great and lasting than themselves had imagined.

10. On one hand, it was in a manner the seed of their ensuing victories, which made the Persians forever after lay aside all thoughts of attacking Greece; so that, during the seven or eight succeeding reigns, there was neither any prince, who durst entertain such a design, nor any flatterer in his court who durst propose the thing to him. On the other hand, such a signal and exemplary instance of intrepidity made an indelible impression upon all the rest of the Grecians, and left a persuasion deeply rooted in their hearts, that they were able to subdue the Persians, and subvert their vast empire. Cimon was the man who made the first attempt of that kind with suc-

cess. Agesilaus afterwards pushed that design so far, that he made the great monarch tremble in his palace at Susa. Alexander at last accomplished it with incredible facility. He never had the least doubt, no more than the Macedonians who followed him, or the whole country of Greece that chose him general in that expedition, but that with 30,000 -men he could reduce the Persian empire, 300 Spartans having been sufficient to check the united forces of the whole east.

11. The brave will love the brave, and deep revere;
 Let freemen honour with a brother's tear
 That king of freedom and his Spartan band,
 Who nobly fought to save their native land.
 No love of conquest urg'd them to invade;
 They fought th'invader, and they fell betray'd.

Should foemen fill our country with alarms,
 Think of Thermopylæ, and rouse to arms.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is Thermopylæ?—2. Who commanded the Grecian forces at this strait?—3. How many had he left with him to defend this strait?—4. What reply did Leonidas make when Xerxes wrote to him to deliver up his arms?—5. How did Xerxes, with the Persians, succeed in reaching an eminence that overlooked and commanded the Spartan forces?—6. How many of his forces remained to perish with Leonidas?—7. What did Xerxes cause to be done with the dead body of Leonidas?—8. How many men had Xerxes slain in the battle of Thermopylæ?

SOCRATES.

1. SOCRATES, the famous Greek philosopher, was born at Athens, about 451 years before Christ. He gave early proofs of his valour in the service of his country; but chiefly applied himself to the study of philosophy, and was a person of irresistible eloquence, and accomplished virtue. His distinguishing characteristic was a perfect tranquillity of mind, which enabled him to support, with patience, the most troublesome accidents of

life. He used to beg of those with whom he usually conversed, to put him on his guard, the moment they perceived in him the first emotions of anger; and when they did so, he instantly resumed perfect composure and complacency. His wife, Xantippe, a woman of the most whimsical and provoking temper, afforded him sufficient opportunity of exercising his patience, by the revilings and abuse with which she was constantly loading him.

2. Socrates possessed, in a superior degree, the talent of reasoning. His principal employment was the instruction of youth, an object to which he directed all his care and attention. He kept, however, no fixed public school, but took every opportunity, without regarding times or places, of conveying to them his precepts, and that in the most enticing, agreeable manner. His lessons were so universally relished, that the moment he appeared, whether in the public assemblies, walks, or feasts, he was surrounded with a throng of the most illustrious scholars and hearers. The young Athenians quitted even their pleasures, to listen to the discourse of Socrates.

3. He greatly exerted himself against the power of the thirty tyrants, and in the behalf of Theramenes, whom they had condemned to death; insomuch that they became so alarmed at his behaviour, that they forbade him to instruct the Athenian youth. Soon after, an accusation was formally exhibited against him by Melitus, containing in substance "That he did not acknowledge the gods of the republic, but introduced new deities in their room;" and further, "that he corrupted the youth." He urged, in his defence, that he had assisted, as others did, at the sacrifices and solemn festivals. He denied his endeavouring to establish any new worship. He owned, indeed, he had received frequent admonitions from a divine voice, which he called his genius, that constantly attended him, and discovered to him future events; that he had often made use of this divine assistance for the service of himself and his friends; but, that if he had been thus particularly favoured by Heaven, it was owing chiefly to the regular-

ity of his life and conduct; and that the approbation of the Supreme Being, which was given him as a reward for his virtue, ought not to be objected to him as his crime.

4. Then, as to the other article, wherein he was accused of corrupting the youth, and teaching them to despise the settled laws, and order of the commonwealth, he said he had no other view in his conversation with them, than to regulate their morals; that as he could not do this with any public authority, he was therefore forced to insinuate himself into their company, and to use, in a manner, the same methods to reclaim, which others did to corrupt them.

5. How far the whole charge affected him, it is not easy to determine. It is certain, that amidst so much zeal and superstition as then reigned in Athens, he never durst openly oppose the received religion, and was therefore obliged to preserve an outward show of it. But is very probable, from the discourses he frequently held with his friends, that, in his heart, he despised and laughed at their monstrous opinions, and ridiculous mysteries, as having no other foundation than the fables of the poets; and that he had attained to a notion of the one, only true God; insomuch that, upon the account of his belief of the Deity, and his exemplary life, some have thought fit to rank him with christian philosophers. And indeed his behaviour upon his trial, was more like that of a christian martyr, than of an impious pagan; where he appeared with such a composed confidence, as naturally results from innocence; and rather, as Cicero observes, as if he were to determine upon his judges, than to supplicate them as a criminal.

6. But how slight soever the proofs were against him, the faction was powerful enough to find him guilty. It was a privilege, however, granted him, to demand a mitigation of punishment—to change the condemnation of death, into banishment, imprisonment, or a fine. But he replied generously, that he would choose neither of those punishments, because that would be to acknowledge himself guilty. This answer so incensed his judges, that they determined he should drink the

hemlock, a punishment, at that time, much in use among them. Thirty days were allowed him to prepare to die; during which time, he conversed with his friends with the same evenness and serenity of mind he had ever done before. And though they had bribed the jailor for his escape, he refused it, as an ungenerous violation of the laws. He was about seventy years old when he suffered; which made him say, he thought himself happy to quit life, at a time when it begins to be troublesome; and that his death was rather a deliverance than a punishment.

7. Cicero has described, with great elegance, the lofty sentiments and magnanimous behaviour of Socrates. While he held the fatal cup in his hand, he declared, that he considered death, not as a punishment inflicted on him, but as a help furnished him of arriving so much sooner at heaven. He gave it as his opinion, that upon the departure of our souls from our bodies, there are two passages for conducting them to the places of their eternal destination; one leading to never ending punishment, which receives those souls, that, during their residence on earth, have contaminated themselves with many great crimes; the other, leading to a state of felicity and bliss, which receives the souls of those who have lived virtuously in the world.

8. When Socrates had finished his discourse, he bathed himself. His children being then brought to him, he spoke to them a little, and then desired them to be taken away. The hour appointed for drinking the hemlock being come, they brought him the cup, which he received without any emotion, and then addressed a prayer to heaven. It is highly reasonable, said he, to offer my prayers to the Supreme Being on this occasion, and to beseech him to render my departure from earth, and my last journey, happy. Then he drank of the poison with amazing tranquillity. Observing his friends, in this fatal moment, weeping, and dissolved in tears, he reproved them with great mildness, asking them, whether their virtue had deserted them; "for," added he, "I have always heard, that it is our duty calmly to

resign our breath, giving thanks to God." After walking about a little while, perceiving the poison beginning to work, he lay down on his couch, and in a few moments after, breathed his last. Cicero declares, that he could never read the account of the death of Socrates, without shedding tears.

9. Who, firmly stood in a corrupted state,
Against the rage of tyrants single stood,
Invincible; calm Reason's holy law,
That voice of God within the attentive mind,
Obeying fearless, or in life, or death—
Great Moral Teacher! Wisest of mankind!

10. Soon after his death, the Athenians were convinced of his innocence, and considered all the misfortunes which afterwards befel the republic, as a punishment for the injustice of his sentence. When the academy, and the other places of the city where he taught, presented themselves to the view of his countrymen, they could not refrain from reflecting on the reward bestowed by them, on one who had done them such important services. They cancelled the decree, which had condemned him; put Melitus to death, banished his other accusers; and erected to his memory a statue of brass, which was executed by the famous Lysippus.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where and when was Socrates born?—2. What were the charges against him?—3. What privilege was granted him on being found guilty?—4. How did he reply to this offer?—5. In what manner did he suffer death?

THE SOCIAL STATE.

MAN in society is like a flower
Blown in its native bed—'tis there alone
His faculties, expanded in full bloom,
Shine out; there only reach their proper use.
But man, associated and leagu'd with man
By regal warrant, or self-join'd by bond

For interest-sake, or swarming into clans
 Beneath one head for purposes of war,
 Like flowers selected from the rest, and bound
 And bundled close to fill some crowded vase,
 Fades rapidly, and, by compression marr'd,
 Contracts defilements not to be endur'd.

BATTLE OF MARATHON.

1. THE Persian army, commanded by Datis, consisted of, 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. That of the Athenians amounted in all but to 10,000 men. This had ten generals, of whom Miltiades was the chief; and these ten were to have the command of the whole army, each for a day, one after another. There was a great dispute among these officers, whether they should hazard a battle, or expect the enemy within their walls. The latter opinion had a great majority, and appeared very reasonable; for what appearance of success could there be in facing, with a handful of soldiers, so numerous and formidable an army as that of the Persians?—Miltiades, however, declared for the contrary opinion; and showed, that the only means to exalt the courage of their own troops, and to strike a terror into those of the enemy, was to advance boldly towards them with an air of confidence and intrepidity. Aristides strenuously defended this opinion, and brought so many of the commanders into it, that it finally prevailed.

2. Aristides reflecting, that a command which changes every day, must necessarily be feeble, unequal, not of a piece, often contrary to itself and incapable either of projecting or executing any uniform design, was of opinion that their danger was both too great and too pressing for them to expose their affairs to such inconveniences. In order to prevent them, he judged it necessary to vest the whole power in one single person; and, to induce his colleagues to act conformably, he himself set the first example of resignation. When the day came on which it was his turn to take upon him the

command, he resigned it to Miltiades, as the more able and experienced general. The other commanders did the same, all sentiments of jealousy giving way to the love of the public good; and by this day's behaviour we may learn, that it is almost as glorious to acknowledge merit in other persons, as to have it in one's self.

3. Miltiades, however, thought fit to wait till his own day came. Then, like an able captain, he endeavoured, by the advantage of the ground, to gain what he wanted in strength and number. He drew up his army at the foot of a mountain, that the enemy should not be able either to surround him, or charge him in the rear. On the two sides of his army he caused large trees to be thrown, which were cut down on purpose, in order to cover his flanks, and render the Persian cavalry useless. Datis, their commander, was very sensible that the place was not advantageous for him; but, relying upon the number of his troops, which was infinitely superior to that of the Athenians, and, on the other hand, not being willing to stay till the reinforcement of the Spartans, he determined to engage. The Athenians did not wait for the enemy's charging them. As soon as the signal was given for battle, they ran against the enemy with all the fury imaginable.

4. The battle was very fierce and obstinate. Miltiades had made the wings of his army exceeding strong, but had left the main body more weak, and not so deep; the reason of which seems manifest enough. Having but 10,000 men to oppose to such a numerous and vast army, it was impossible for him either to make a large front, or to give an equal depth to his battalions. He was obliged, therefore, to take his choice; and he imagined, that he could gain the victory no otherwise than by the efforts he should make with his two wings, in order to break and disperse those of the Persians; not doubting but, when his wings were once victorious, they would be able to attack the enemy's main flank, and complete the victory without much difficulty. This was the same plan as Hannibal followed afterwards at the battle of Cannæ, which succeeded so well with

him, and which indeed can scarce ever fail of succeeding.

5. The Persians then attacked the main body of the Grecian army, and made their greatest efforts particularly upon their front. This was led by Aristides and Themistocles, who supported it a long time with an intrepid courage and bravery; but were at length obliged to give ground. At that very instant came up their two victorious wings, which had defeated those of the enemy, and put them to flight. Nothing could be more seasonable for the main body of the Grecian army, which began to be broken, being quite borne down by the numbers of the Persians. The scale was quickly turned, and the barbarians were entirely routed. They all betook themselves to their heels, and fled, not towards their camp, but to their ships, that they might make their escape. The Athenians pursued them thither, took seven of their ships, and set many of them on fire. The Athenians had not above 200 men killed in this engagement; whereas of the Persians above 6,000 were slain, without reckoning those who fell into the sea as they endeavoured to escape, or those that were consumed with the ships set on fire.

6. Hippias was killed in the battle. That ungrateful and perfidious citizen, in order to recover the unjust dominion usurped by his father, Pisistratus, over the Athenians, had the baseness to become a servile courtier to a barbarian prince, and to implore his aid against his native country. Urged on by hatred and revenge, he suggested all the means he could invent to load his country with chains; and even put himself at the head of its enemies, with design to reduce that city to ashes, to which he owed his birth, and against which he had no other ground of complaint than that she would not acknowledge him for her tyrant. An ignominious death, together with everlasting infamy entailed upon his name, was the just reward of so black a treachery.

7. It is almost without example, that such a handful of men as the Athenians were, should not only make head against so numerous an army as that of the Persians, but should entirely rout and defeat them. One

is astonished to see so formidable a power attack so small a city, and miscarry; and we are almost tempted to disbelieve the truth of an event that appears so improbable, and which, nevertheless, is very certain and unquestionable. This battle alone shows what wonderful things may be performed by an able general, who knows how to take his advantages; by the intrepidity of soldiers, who are not afraid of death; by a zeal for one's country: the love of liberty; an hatred and detestation of slavery and tyranny; which were sentiments natural to the Athenians, but undoubtedly very much augmented and inflamed in them by the very presence of Hippias, whom they dreaded to have again for their master, after all that had passed between them.

QUESTIONS.

1. How numerous were the Persians in the battle of Marathon?—2. How many were in the Athenian army?—3. Who commanded the Persians?—4. Who the Athenians?—5. How many of the Persians were slain in this battle?—6. How many of the Athenians?

SENECA.

1. SENECA was born in Corduba, in Spain, about the beginning of the Christian æra. Though he was bred to the law, his genius led him rather to philosophy, and he applied his wit to morality and virtue. Notwithstanding his philosophic studies, he was first made quæstor, then prætor, and some say that he was chosen consul; but whether he bore those honours before or after his banishment, is uncertain.

2. In the first year of the emperor Claudius, he was banished into Corsica, when Julia, the daughter of Germanicus, was accused by Messalina of adultery; Seneca being charged as one of the adulterers. But Messalina dying, and Agrippina being married to Claudius, she prevailed upon the emperor to recal Seneca, after he had lived in exile about eight years. She afterwards recommended him as tutor to her son Nero. Had that prince attended to the wisdom of his preceptor, through the course of his reign, as much as he did for the first

five years of it, he would have been the *delight* instead of the *detestation* of mankind.

3. Nero condemned Seneca to die, under pretence that he had conspired with Piso, to deprive him of the government. The manner of his death is particularly related by Tacitus. "Now follows," says he, "the death of Seneca, to Nero's great satisfaction; not because it appeared that he was of Piso's conspiracy, but because Nero was resolved to do that by the sword, which he could not effect by poison; for it is reported, that Nero had bribed Cleonicus, Seneca's freed-man, to give his master poison, which did not succeed; for his diet was very simple. He lived chiefly upon vegetables, and seldom drank any thing but water.

4. "Natalis was sent upon a visit to him with a complaint, that he would not permit Piso to visit him. To whom Seneca answered, that meetings and conferences between them could do neither of them any good, but that he had a great interest in Piso's welfare. Upon this, Granius Silvanus, a captain of the guard, was sent to examine Seneca upon the discourse which had passed between him and Natalis, and to return his answer. He found Seneca at supper with his wife, Paulina, and two of his friends, and immediately gave him an account of his commission. Seneca told him that is was true, that Natalis had been with him in Piso's name, with a complaint that Piso could not be admitted to see him, and that he excused himself by reason of his want of health.

5. "This answer of Seneca was delivered to Cæsar in the presence of Poppœa and Tigellinus, the intimate confidants of this barbarous prince; and Nero asked him, whether he could gather any thing from Seneca, as if he intended to kill himself? The tribune's answer was, that he did not find him at all affected with the message, nor so much as change countenance upon it. Go back to him, then, says Nero, and tell him that he is condemned to die; but that the manner of his death is left to his own choice. Seneca received the message without surprise or disorder; and chose to die by having his veins opened in a warm bath.

6. "On the day of his death, seeing his friends very much affected, he said to them—Where is all your philosophy now? Where is all your premeditated resolutions against weakness of behaviour? Is there any man so ignorant of Nero's cruelty, as to expect, after the murder of his mother, and his brother, that he should spare the life of his tutor?"

7. After some general expressions to this purpose, he took his wife in his arms, and having somewhat fortified her against the present calamity, he besought and conjured her to moderate her sorrows and betake herself to the contemplation and comforts of a virtuous life, which would be ample compensation to her for the loss of her husband. Paulina, on the other hand, said, she was determined to bear him company; and ordered the executioner to do his duty.

8. Accordingly, the veins of both their arms were opened at the same time. But after Paulina had bled for a considerable time, Nero gave orders to prevent her death, for fear his cruelty should grow more insupportable and odious. Whereupon the soldiers gave all freedom and encouragement to her servants to bind up the wounds, and to stop the blood; but whether at the time they were doing it, she was sensible of it, is a question. She survived her husband for some years, with all respect to his memory; but so miserably pale and wan, that every body might read the loss of her blood and spirits in her very countenance.

9. Seneca was an excellent moralist, and a sound philosopher; but he does not make so considerable a figure as a poet, and a writer of tragedies. His sentiments, indeed, are sublime, and his images lively and poetical; but both the fable and the execution of his plays are irregular. He wants that noble simplicity, and pathetic manner, which recommended Euripides; and he seems to have written more for the use of the closet, than of the stage.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where was Seneca born?—2. When?—3. By whom was he banished into Corsica?—4. For what was he banished?—5.

To whom was Seneca a tutor?—6. Who condemned him to death?—7. Why was he condemned?—8. In what manner was he executed?

PATRIOTISM.

1. They praise and they admire they know not what,
And know not whom, but as one leads the other;
And what delight to be by such extoll'd,
To live upon their tongues and be their talk,
Of whom to be dispraised is no small praise?
His lot who dares be singularly good,
Th' intelligent among them and the wise
Are few, and glory scarce of few is raised,
This is true glory and renown, when God
Looking on th' earth, with approbation marks
The just man, and divulges him through heaven
To all his angels, who with true applause
Recount his praises.

2. They err who count it glorious, to subdue
By conquest far and wide, to overrun
Large countries, and in fields great battles win,
Great cities by assault; what do these worthies
But rob and spoil, burn, slaughter and enslave
Peaceable nations, neighbouring or remote,
Made captive, yet deserving freedom more
Than those their conquerors, who leave behind
Nothing but ruin wheresoe'er they rove,
And all their flourishing works of peace destroy.
Then swell with pride, and must be titled gods,
Great Benefactors of mankind, Deliverers,
Worshipp'd with temple, priest and sacrifice!
One is the son of Jove, of Mars the other;
Till conqueror Death discovers them scarce men,
Rolling in brutish vices, and deformed,
Violent or shameful death their due reward.

THE CARTHAGENIANS.

1. It is supposed, that Carthage had its origin about one hundred years before Romulus began the building of Rome, and eight hundred and fifty years before the Christian æra. The founders of it were a company of Phœnicians.) (Dido, to escape the cruelty of her brother Pygmalion, king of Tyre, who had murdered her husband Sichæus, sailed with a company of faithful adherents, to the coast of Africa, and there having landed, founded a city, that afterwards vied with the most powerful and magnificent on earth.) The city of Carthage stood at the bottom of a gulf, on a peninsula, near the place where now stands the city of Tunis; and the territory of Carthage was about the same that now constitutes the kingdom of Tunis. Carthada, or Carthage, in the Phœnician and Hebrew language, means a new city.

2. Many of the neighbouring people, invited by the prospect of lucre, repaired to Carthage, to sell to these foreigners the necessaries of life, and shortly after incorporated themselves with them. These inhabitants, who had been thus gathered from different places, soon became numerous. Although the early history of this people is necessarily, like that of most ancient states, involved in much obscurity, yet there is reason to believe the city was continually enlarging her borders, and adding to her wealth. At the time of her greatest splendour, the city itself occupied the space of twenty-three miles in circumference, was surrounded by three walls, and contained seven hundred thousand inhabitants.

3. The Carthagenians were indebted to the Tyrians, not only for their origin, but for their manners, language, customs, laws, religion, and their great application to commerce, as will appear in every part of their history. They spoke the same language with the Tyrians, and these the same with the Canaanites and Israelites, that is, the Hebrew tongue, or at least a language that was entirely derived from it. And the Carthagenians were never forgetful of the country from whence they came,

and to which they owed their origin. They sent regularly every year to Tyre, a ship freighted with presents as an acknowledgment paid to their ancient country; and they never failed to send thither the first fruits of their revenues—nor the tithes of the spoils taken from their enemies, as offerings to Hercules, one of the principal gods of that city.

4. Monarchy is supposed to have been the original government of Carthage; neither is it known at what period it assumed the form of a republic. It is, however, generally allowed, that the republic consisted of the people, a very numerous senate, and two *suffetes*, or presiding magistrates. These *suffetes* corresponded in rank and power with the consuls at Rome, and kings at Macedon; but were not, like the latter, chosen for life. They were elected from among the richest citizens, that they might be the better able to support their dignity with splendour. The election of a senator depended upon the voice of the people, and the senators themselves; but the manner of their being chosen is unknown. When the votes of the senate were unanimous, they possessed the power of giving laws, from which there was no appeal. But when the suffrages were divided, or when the *suffetes* stood alone, the decision was referred to the people, who then gave the final decree.

5. The (commerce) of Carthage was the principal cause of her greatness and wealth—her fleets covered every coast; and by having the sovereignty of the sea, for more than six centuries, she monopolized, in no small degree, the commercial interests of the whole world. But what commerce was to the wealth of Carthage, Hannibal was to her military glory. Under him, she acquired a name more durable than brass. At the age of nine years, he is said to have taken an oath of eternal enmity to the Romans; and the indefatigable perseverance, with which he ever aimed at their destruction, proved his sincerity. He subdued all the nations of Spain that resisted the Carthaginian power; and after eight months siege, took the city of Saguntum. This city was in alliance with the Romans; and

its inhabitants were so attached to the Roman interests, that rather than fall into the hands of their enemies, they set fire to their houses and other effects, and perished in the flames.

6. The capture of Saguntum is more celebrated for its being the commencement of the second Punic war, than for the magnitude of the city, or the force necessary to its reduction. It is nevertheless sufficiently memorable, when taken in connexion with the battle of Cannæ, that immediately followed it, to give Hannibal a place among the most distinguished warriors. The victory of Cannæ, is not only one of the most splendid achievements in the Carthaginian hero; but it is also one of the most splendid achievements recorded in the history of warfare. The whole army of Hannibal did not exceed 50,000; but so well directed were all his movements, that no less than 40,000 Romans were slain. This victory, although complete, proved of little use to the Carthagenians. The Romans, to free themselves from Hannibal, determined on invading his own dominions. When Carthage saw her coasts invaded, she recalled Hannibal, as it had been calculated by the Romans that she would.

7. Hannibal left Italy, which he had kept under perpetual alarms for sixteen years, with the greatest reluctance. He seemed aware of the reverse of fortune that soon awaited him. Shortly after his return to Africa, the two hostile armies met at Zama, where was a general engagement. The Roman victory was complete—23,000 Carthagenians were slain, and as many more taken prisoners. After this decisive battle, Hannibal seemed convinced of his own inability to revenge his country's wrongs; and therefore employed himself in persuading the neighbouring princes to make war against the Romans. But not succeeding in his attempts, and the Roman senate being apprised of his designs, and sending to Bythinia to demand him of Prusias, Hannibal terminated his own life by poison.

8. The city and republic of Carthage were destroyed by the termination of the third Punic war, 147 years before Christ. The city was in flames during seven-

teen days; and the news of its destruction caused the greatest joy at Rome. The Roman senate immediately appointed commissioners, not only to raze the walls of Carthage, but even to demolish and burn the very materials of which they were made; and in a few days, that city, which had once been the seat of commerce, the model of magnificence, the common store-house of the wealth of nations, and one of the most powerful states in the world, left behind no traces of its splendour, of its power, or even of its existence. The history of Carthage is one of the many proofs that we have, of the transitory nature of worldly glory; for of all her grandeur, not a wreck remains. Her own walls, like the calm ocean, that conceals forever the riches hid in its unsearchable abyss, now obscure all her magnificence.

QUESTIONS.

1. By whom, and when was Carthage founded?—2. What circumstances gave rise to the building of this city?—3. What was the condition of Carthage at the time of her greatest splendour?—4. What was the language of the Carthaginians?—5. To what may the greatness and wealth of Carthage be attributed?—6. Under what general did the Carthaginians obtain a military name?—7. How many of the Romans were killed in the battle of Cannæ?—8. How many of the Carthaginians were slain and taken prisoners in the battle of Zama?—9. What were the circumstances of Hannibal's death?—10. When was the city of Carthage destroyed?

THE WARRIOR'S WREATH.

BEHOLD the wreath which decks the warrior's brow.
Breathes it a balmy fragrance sweet? Ah, no!

It rankly savours of the grave!

'Tis *red*—but not with roseate hues;

'Tis crimson'd o'er

With human gore!

'Tis *wet*—but not with heavenly dew;

'Tis drench'd in tears by widows, orphans shed;

Methinks in sable weeds I see them clad,

And mourn in vain, for husbands slain,
 Children belov'd, or brothers dear,
 The fatherless
 In deep distress,
 Despairing, shed the scalding tear.

I hear, 'mid dying groans, the cannon's crash,
 I see, 'mid smoke, the musket's horrid flash—
 Here famine walks—there carnage stalks—
 Hell in her fiery eye, she stains
 With purple blood,
 The crystal flood,
 Heaven's altars and the verdant plains!

Scenes of domestic peace and social bliss
 Are chang'd to scenes of woe and wretchedness,
 The votaries of vice increase—
 Towns sack'd, whole-cities wrapt in flame!
 Just Heaven! say,
 Is this the *bay*,
 Which warriors gain—is this call'd FAME!

SOLOMON'S TEMPLE.

1. The peace and prosperity of Solomon's reign were well adapted to the prosecution of that work which David had designed, but which was to be accomplished by his successor. The king, therefore, took advantage of the time, and made preparations for building the house of the Lord. In the first place, he sent messengers to Hiram, king of Tyre, who had been the friend of his father, informing him of his intentions, and requesting from him a supply of cedar and fir. This was readily and cheerfully bestowed, and the two kings entered into a covenant of perpetual peace and friendship. Solomon then levied thirty thousand workmen, and arranged them in three companies of ten thousand each, giving to Adoniram, one of his officers, the oversight and command of the whole.

2. These labourers were to be employed, with the servants of Hiram, in Mount Lebanon; but only one company was sent out at a time, which remained for a month, and then returned home, and was succeeded by another. In carrying on the work, there were, also, seventy thousand whose duty it was to bear burdens, and eighty thousand who were employed as hewers of stone in the mountains. The number of overseers amounted to thirty-three thousand. This magnificent undertaking was commenced in the fourth year of Solomon's reign, four hundred and forty years from the time of the settlement of the Israelites in the land of Canaan; and the building was completed, in all its parts, in seven years, during which, the sound of axe, or hammer, or any tool of iron, was not heard upon it, the timber being all made ready in the forest, and the stones in the quarries.

3. Solomon, also, built for himself two very superb and costly palaces, together with a house of equal beauty and splendour for the queen. In completing the temple, a distinguished artizan from Tyre, by the name of Hiram, had been employed, who cast two pillars of brass, each eighteen cubits in height, upon which were raised chapiters, adorned with lily work, net work, and pomegranates. These pillars were placed at the entrance of the porch, one upon the right hand and the other upon the left.

4. Hiram, also, made all the vessels and instruments which were to be used in the services of the sanctuary; and thus the building became ready for the devotions and offerings of the people. Solomon then caused the ark to be removed to the place which he had prepared for it in the temple, upon which the glory of the Lord filled the house, and the king proceeded to the dedication in a solemn and fervent prayer, in which he implored the divine favour upon the work of his hands, and the services to which it was appropriated. He concluded, with a blessing which he pronounced upon the congregation; and, after offering a vast number of sacrifices, and keeping a feast to the Lord seven days, he dismissed the people, who returned to their habitations.

and, to this end, they sent to him a deputation, with Jeroboam at the head of it, to obtain from him a promise that, on his advancement to the throne, he would redress their grievances. Rehoboam immediately summoned a council of old experienced men, to whom he communicated the message he had received, and requested their opinion in regard to the answer which he ought to give. They advised him, without hesitation, to comply with the wishes of the people; but instead of regarding their direction, he referred the subject to the determination of some of his young and thoughtless companions.

2. By these he was told to pay no respect to the complaints or feelings of the people; but to state to their messengers, that, so far from lessening the evils which they represented, he would greatly increase them. This advice, which was agreeable to his own sentiments, he imprudently followed; in consequence of which, ten tribes immediately revolted from the house of David, and made Jeroboam their king. The nation thus became divided into two parts, of which the one was designated by the name of Israel, and the other by that of Judah. The tribe of Judah retained the adherence of the Benjamites, but there were comparatively so few of the latter, that both families were included under one general appellation.

3. Rehoboam, upon this unexpected defection, sent Adoram, who was over the tribute, to collect from the Israelites their accustomed taxes; but the enraged multitude stoned him to death. He then hastened with all speed up to Jerusalem, where he assembled a large force of the men of Judah and Benjamin, and prepared to give battle to Jeroboam, that he might thus bring back the rebel tribes to their allegiance. His intentions were, however, frustrated; for the word of the Lord came to him by the prophet Shemaiah, forbidding him to take up arms, and declaring that the event which had occurred was according to the divine will.

4. From this time there is but little recorded of the reign of Rehoboam. His subjects became exceedingly vicious and depraved; and abandoned themselves to

idolatry and all manner of wickedness ; in consequence of which, the king of Egypt was sent against them, who took the city of Jerusalem, and robbed the temple and the palace of their treasures, and carried away the shields of gold which Solomon had made ; in the place of which the king substituted others of brass. Rehoboam was forty-one years old when he began to reign, and he continued on the throne seventeen years, at the expiration of which, he died, and was buried with his fathers. He was succeeded by his son Abijam.

5. The revolted Israelites, under Jeroboam, did not exceed their brethren of Judah in virtue and piety.—The king, in order to prevent the people from going up to Jerusalem to sacrifice, which he supposed they would be inclined to do from their former habits, and their reverence for the temple and the ark, made two golden calves, the one of which he placed in Dan, and the other in Bethel, the northern and southern extremities of his dominions. He, also, established festivals to be observed on the same days with those of Jerusalem, and advanced to the priesthood the lowest of the people, who were not of the house of Levi. In these ways he made Israel to sin, and provoked the severe displeasure of the Lord.

6. On a certain day, as Jeroboam stood by the idol which he had erected at Bethel, impiously executing the office of a priest, by burning incense, a prophet of God came thither from Judah and denounced a heavy wo upon the altar, and upon those who should sacrifice upon it, which he declared should be accomplished in the reign of a future prince by the name of Josiah ; and to confirm the truth of his prediction, he further said, that the altar should be rent, and the ashes upon it poured out. This speech so incensed Jeroboam, that, stretching out his hand, he ordered his attendants to seize the prophet ; but his hand immediately withered away, and the altar became rent so that the ashes fell upon the ground.

7. The king was then convinced of the inspiration of the prophet, and entreated him to pray for the restoration of his hand, which he readily did, and it returned

to its former state. Jeroboam then urged the stranger to go home with him and receive some refreshment; but the latter refused the invitation, upon the ground, that the Lord had commanded him neither to eat nor to drink. He then departed from the place, and was followed by an old prophet, who had been informed by his sons, of the transactions at the altar, and who had persuaded him, by a false statement, to return.

8. While they were seated at the table, the word of the Lord came unto the old prophet, and he addressed the man of God who was from Judah, declaring in substance, that in consequence of his disobedience to the command of heaven, he should not be buried in the sepulchre of his fathers. This sentence was soon put in execution; for immediately after leaving the city, he was attacked by a lion and slain. The prophet of Bethel, when he heard of this calamity, went out and took the body, which had been neither torn nor disfigured, and returning with it, caused it to be buried in his own tomb; at the same time expressing his confidence that the predictions concerning the altar would all be fulfilled, and giving it in charge to his sons, that when he died, they should lay him by the side of the man of God.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who succeeded Solomon?—2. What caused the Ten Tribes of Israel to revolt from Judah?—3. Who became king of Israel?—4. Which Tribe continued to adhere to Judah?—5. What of importance happened to Jerusalem in the reign of Rehoboam?—6. What did Jeroboam do to prevent his people from going up to Jerusalem to offer sacrifice?—7. What happened to Jeroboam at Bethel?

JULIUS CÆSAR, AND POMPEY.

1. THE ambition of Cæsar and of Pompey had now evidently the same object; and it seemed to be the only question in those degenerate times, to which of these aspiring leaders the republic should surrender its liberties. The term of Cæsar's government was nearly ex-

piring ; but to secure himself against a deprivation of power, he procured a proposal to be made in the senate by one of his partisans, which wore the appearance of great moderation, namely, that Cæsar and Pompey should either both continue in their governments, or both be deprived of them, as they were equally capable of endangering the public liberty by an abuse of power.

2. The motion passed, and Cæsar immediately offered to resign, on condition that his rival should do so ; but Pompey rejected the accommodation ; the term of his government had yet several years duration, and he suspected the proposal to be a snare laid for him by Cæsar. He resolved to maintain his right by force of arms, and a civil war was the necessary consequence. The consuls and a great part of the senate were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army, consisting of ten legions, and the body of the Roman citizens, whom he had won by his liberality. Mark Antony and Cassius, at that time tribunes of the people, left Rome and repaired to Cæsar's camp.

3. The senate, apprehensive of his designs, pronounced a decree, branding, with the crime of parricide, any commander who should dare to pass the Rubicon, (the boundary between Italy and the Gauls) with a single cohort, without their permission. Cæsar infringed the prohibition, and marched straight to Rome. Pompey, to whom the senate committed the defence of the state, had no army. He quitted Rome, followed by the consuls and a part of the senate, and endeavoured hastily to levy troops over all Italy and Greece ; while Cæsar triumphantly entered the city, amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition.

4. Having secured the capital of the empire, he set out to take the field against his enemies. The lieutenants of Pompey had possession of Spain. Cæsar marched thither, and subdued the whole country in the space of forty days. He returned victorious to Rome, where, in his absence, he had been nominated dictator. In the

succeeding election of magistrates, he was chosen consul; and thus invested, by a double title, with the right of acting in the name of the republic. Pompey had, by this time, raised a numerous army, and Cæsar was anxious to bring him to a decisive engagement. He joined him in Illyria, and the first conflict was of doubtful issue; but leading on his army to Macedonia, where they found a large reinforcement, he gave battle to Pompey in the field of Pharsalia, and entirely defeated him. Fifteen thousand were slain, and 24,000 surrendered themselves prisoners to the victor, A. U. C.* 705, B. C. 49.

QUESTIONS.

1. What proposition did Cæsar make?—2. Did Pompey accede to it?—3. What decree did the Roman senate pronounce at this time?—4. What did Pompey, as Cæsar advanced to Rome?—4. With what title was Cæsar invested, after returning from Spain?—6. At what battle was Pompey defeated?

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA.

1. As the armies approached, the two generals went from rank to rank, encouraging their troops. Pompey represented to his men, that the glorious occasion, which they had long besought him to grant, was now before them; "and indeed," cried he, "what advantages could you wish over an enemy, that you are not now possessed of? Your numbers, your vigour, a late victory, all ensure a speedy and an easy conquest over those harrassed and broken troops, composed of men worn out with age, and impressed with the terrors of a recent defeat. But there is a still stronger bulwark for our protection, than the superiority of our strength—the justice of our cause. You are engaged in the defence of liberty, and of your country. You are supported by its laws, and followed by its magistrates. You have the world spectators of your conduct, and wishing you success. On the contrary, he whom you

* Anno Urbis Condite, or year of building the city.

oppose is a robber and oppressor of his country, and almost already sunk with the consciousness of his crimes, as well as the bad success of his arms. Show, then, on this occasion, all that ardour, and detestation of tyranny, that should animate Romans, and do justice to mankind."

2. Cæsar, on his side, went among his men with that steady serenity, for which he was so much admired in the midst of danger. He insisted on nothing so strongly, to his soldiers, as his frequent and unsuccessful endeavours for peace. He talked, with terror, on the blood he was going to shed, and pleaded only the necessity that urged him to it. He deplored the many brave men that were to fall on both sides, and the wounds of his country, whoever should be victorious. His soldiers answered his speech with looks of ardour and impatience; which observing, he gave the signal to begin. The word on Pompey's side was, *Hercules the invincible*; that on Cæsar's, *Venus the victorious*. There was only so much space between both armies, as to give room for fighting; wherefore, Pompey ordered his men to receive the first shock, without moving out of their places, expecting the enemy's ranks to be put into disorder by their motion. Cæsar's soldiers were now rushing on with their usual impetuosity, when, perceiving the enemy motionless, they all stopt short, as if by general consent, and halted in the midst of their career. A terrible pause ensued, in which both armies continued to gaze upon each other with mutual terror.

3. At length, Cæsar's men, having taken breath, ran furiously upon the enemy, first discharging their javelins, and then drawing their swords. The same method was observed by Pompey's troops, who as vigorously opposed the attack. His cavalry, also, were ordered to charge on the very onset, which, with the multitude of archers and slingers, soon obliged Cæsar's men to give ground; whereupon, Cæsar immediately ordered the six cohorts, that were placed as a reinforcement, to advance, with orders to strike at the enemy's faces. This had its desired effect. The cavalry, that were but just now sure of victory, received

an immediate check; the unusual method of fighting pursued by the cohorts, their aiming entirely at the visages of the assailants, and the horrible disfiguring wounds they made, all contributed to intimidate them so much, that, instead of defending their persons, their only endeavour was to save their faces. A total rout ensued of their whole body, which fled, in great disorder, to the neighbouring mountains, while the archers and slingers, who were thus abandoned, were cut to pieces.

4. Cæsar now commanded the cohorts to pursue their success, and advancing, charged Pompey's troops upon the flank. This charge the enemy withstood for some time with great bravery, till he brought up his third line, which had not yet engaged. Pompey's infantry, being thus doubly attacked in front by fresh troops, and in rear by the victorious cohorts, could no longer resist, but fled to their camp. The right wing, however, still valiantly maintained their ground. But Cæsar, being now convinced that the victory was certain, with his usual clemency, cried out, to pursue the strangers, and to spare the Romans; upon which, they all laid down their arms, and received quarter. The greatest slaughter was among the auxiliaries, who fled on all quarters, but principally went for safety to the camp. The battle had now lasted from the break of day till noon, although the weather was extremely hot; the conquerors, however, did not remit their ardour, being encouraged by the example of their general, who thought his victory not complete till he became master of the enemy's camp.

5. Accordingly, marching on foot, at their head, he called upon them to follow, and strike the decisive blow. The cohorts, which were left to defend the camp, for some time made a formidable resistance, particularly a great number of the Thracians, and other barbarians, who were appointed for its defence; but nothing could resist the ardour of Cæsar's victorious army; they were, at last, driven from their retrenches, and all fled to the mountains, not far off. Cæsar, seeing the field and camp strewn with his fallen countrymen, was strongly affected at so melancholy a pros-

pect, and could not help crying out, to one that stood near him, "They would have it so." Upon entering the enemy's camp, every object presented fresh instances of the blind presumption and madness of his adversaries. On all sides were to be seen tents adorned with ivy, and branches of myrtles, couches covered with purple, and side-boards loaded with plate. Every thing gave proofs of the highest luxury, and seemed rather the preparatives for a banquet, the rejoicings for a victory, than the dispositions for a battle.

6. As for Pompey, who had formerly shown such instances of courage and conduct, when he saw his cavalry routed, on which he had placed his sole dependence, he absolutely lost his reason. Instead of thinking how to remedy this disorder, by rallying such troops as fled, or by opposing fresh troops to stop the progress of the conquerors, being totally amazed by this unexpected blow, he returned to the camp, and, in his tent, waited the issue of an event, which it was his duty to direct, not to follow. There he remained for some moments, without speaking; till, being told that the camp was attacked, "What," says he, "are we pursued to our very entrenchments?" And immediately quitting his armor, for a habit more suitable to his circumstances, he fled on horseback to the river Peneus; giving way to all the agonizing reflections which his deplorable situation must naturally suggest.

7. Here he took ship, and proceeded to the Amphipolis; where, finding his affairs desperate, he steered to Lesbos, to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there, at a distance from the dangers and hurry of war. She, who had long flattered herself with the hopes of victory, felt the reverse of her fortune, in an agony of distress. She was desired by the messenger, (whose tears, more than words, proclaimed the greatness of her misfortunes) to hasten, if she expected to see Pompey, with but one ship, and even that not his own. Her grief, which before was violent, now became insupportable; she fainted away, and lay a considerable time without any signs of life. At length,

recovering herself, and reflecting that it was now no time for vain lamentations, she ran quite through the city to the sea-side. Pompey embraced her without speaking a word, and for some time supported her in his arms, in silent despair.

8. Having taken in Cornelia, he now continued his course, steering to the southeast, and stopping no longer than was necessary to take in provisions, at the ports that occurred in his passage. He was at last prevailed upon to apply to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, to whose father Pompey had been a considerable benefactor. Ptolemy, who was as yet a minor, had not the government in his own hands, but he and his kingdom were under the protection of Photinus and Theodotus. These advised that Pompey should be invited on shore, and there slain; and accordingly, Achilles, the commander of the forces, and Septimius, by birth a Roman, and who had formerly been a centurian in Pompey's army, were appointed to carry their opinion into execution.

9. Being attended by three or four more, they went into a little bark, and rowed off from land towards Pompey's ship, that lay about a mile from the shore. Pompey, after taking leave of Cornelia, who wept at his departure, and having repeated two verses of Sophocles, signifying, that he who trusts his freedom to a tyrant, from that moment becomes a slave, gave his hand to Achilles, and stepped into the bark, with only two attendants of his own. They had now rowed from the ship a good way; and as, during that time, they all kept a profound silence, Pompey, willing to begin the discourse, accosted Septimius, whose face he recollected; "Methinks, friend," cried he, "you and I were once fellow-soldiers together." Septimius gave only a nod with his head, without uttering a word, or instancing the least civility. Pompey, therefore, took out a paper, on which he had minuted a speech he intended to make to the king, and began reading it.

10. In this manner they approached the shore; and Cornelia, whose concern had never suffered her to lose sight of her husband, began to conceive hope, when she perceived the people on the strand, crowding down

along the coast, as if willing to receive him ; but her hopes were soon destroyed ; for at that instant, as Pompey rose, supporting himself upon his freedman's arm, Septimius stabbed him in his back, and was instantly seconded by Achilles. Pompey, perceiving his death inevitable, only disposed himself to meet it with decency—and covering his face with his robe, without speaking a word, with a sigh, resigned himself to his fate. At this horrid sight, Cornelia shrieked so loud as to be heard to the shore ; but the danger she herself was in, did not allow the mariners time to look on ; they immediately set sail, and, the wind proving favourable, fortunately they escaped the pursuit of the Egyptian galleys.

11. In the mean time, Pompey's murderers having cut off his head, caused it to be embalmed, the better to preserve its features, designing it for a present to Cæsar. The body was thrown naked on the strand, and exposed to the view of all those whose curiosity led them that way. However, his faithful freedman, Philip, still kept near it ; and when the crowd was dispersed, he washed it in the sea ; and looking round for materials to burn it with he perceived the wreck of a fishing-boat, of which he composed a pile. While he was thus piously employed, he was accosted by an old Roman soldier, who had served under Pompey in his youth. " Who art thou," said he, " that art making these humble preparations for Pompey's funeral ?" Philip having answered that he was one of his freedmen, " Alas !" replied the soldier, " permit me to share in this honour also ; among all the miseries of my exile, it will be my last sad comfort, that I have been able to assist at the funeral of my old commander, and touch the body of the bravest general that ever Rome produced."

QUESTIONS.

1. Where had Pompey left his wife Cornelia ?—2. To whom did Pompey apply for assistance after his defeat ?—3. Who advised that Pompey should be invited on shore and slain ?—4. Who were appointed to carry their advice into effect ?—5. Who buried Pompey ?

THE WORLD A FLEETING SHOW.

THIS world is all a fleeting show,

For man's illusion given—

The smiles of Joy, the tears of Wo,

Deceitful shine, deceitful flow—

There's nothing true but Heaven !

And false the light on Glory's plume

As fading hues of even ;

And Love, and Hope, and Beauty's bloom,

Are blossoms gathered for the tomb—

There's nothing bright but Heaven !

Poor wanderers of a stormy day,

From wave to wave we're driven,

And Fancy's flash, and Reason's ray,

Serve but to light the troubled way—

There's nothing calm but Heaven !

DEATH OF ANTONY.

1. ANTONY, being lost in luxury and effeminacy with Cleopatra, gave Cæsar* time to get his forces together, who might otherwise have been easily defeated, had Antony come upon him before he was prepared. Antony's fleet consisted of five hundred large ships, on board of which was an army of two hundred thousand foot, and twenty-two thousand horse. Cæsar had only two hundred and fifty ships, eighty thousand foot, and twelve thousand horse. Antony was advised by his ablest commanders not to engage by sea ; but Cleopatra advising to the contrary, they came to a general engagement near the city of Actium in Epirus. Victory was for sometime doubtful, till the retreat of Cleopatra, who fled with the whole Egyptian squadron, and was precipitately followed by Antony, declaring every thing was lost ; for Antony's army immediately submitted to Cæsar.

* Octavius, nephew and successor of Julius, who won the battle of Pharsalia.

2. Antony and Cleopatra escaped to Alexandria, where she put many great persons to death, fearing they might take up arms against her on account of the defeat she had met with. To avoid falling into the hands of Cæsar, she formed the most extraordinary design of having her ships in the Mediterranean carried into the Red Sea, over the isthmus of seventy miles; but in this she was prevented by the Arabians, who burnt them all. Antony finding himself deserted by all his followers, for sometime secluded himself from company in his house, which he called Timonium, where he pretended to act the part of Timon the man-hater; but he soon returned to Cleopatra, and with her spent the remainder of his life.

3. They agreed to send ambassadors to Cæsar, to sue for peace; and Antony submitted to the meanness of demanding life of him, on the shameful conditions of passing it at Athens, as a private person, if Cæsar would give Egypt to Cleopatra and her children. The queen, however, was so treacherous as to give private orders to her ambassadors, to mention her only in the treaty. Cæsar would not admit Antony's ambassadors to an audience; but he gave a favorable reception to those of the queen, being particularly desirous of securing her person to adorn his triumph, and her treasures to enable him to pay the debts he had contracted to defray the expense of the war.

4. The ambassadors proving unsuccessful, Antony endeavoured to extinguish in himself the sense of his present misfortunes, and the apprehension of those that threatened him, by abandoning himself to feasting and voluptuousness. Cleopatra and he regaled themselves alternately, and emulously contended to excel each other in the incredible magnificence of their banquets. Cleopatra, however, foresaw what might happen, and collecting all sorts of poison, discovered at length that the asp was the only one which caused neither torture nor convulsions, and which throwing the person bit into an immediate heaviness and stupefaction, attended with a slight perspiration upon the face, and a numbness of all the organs of sense, gently

extinguishing life ; so that those who were in that condition, were angry when any one awakened them, or endeavoured to make them rise, like people exceedingly sleepy. This was the poison she fixed upon ; but applied herself, with extraordinary solicitude, in caressing Antony, to dispel his suspicions and complaints.

5. Cæsar, being fully sensible that it was of the highest importance to him not to leave his victory unfinished, invested Pelusium, and summoned the governor to open the gates. Seleucus, who commanded there for Cleopatra, had received secret orders upon that head, and surrendered the place without waiting for a siege. Such was the wickedness of this queen, in whom the most odious vices were complicated. She absolutely renounced all modesty ; had a violent propensity to fraud, injustice and cruelty ; and, what was worse than all, was a most detestable hypocrite. While the rumor of this treason spread through the city, Cleopatra ordered her most precious moveables to be carried to a place of security.

6. Cæsar was in hopes of making himself master of Alexandria in a short time, by means of the intelligence he held with Cleopatra, on which he relied no less than on his army. Antony, being ignorant of her intrigues, prepared for an obstinate defence. He made a vigorous sally, and returned victorious into the city, which was the last effort of his expiring genius ; for, after this exploit, fortitude and sense of glory forsook him, or were of no more service to him. Instead of pursuing his victory, and keeping a watchful eye over Cleopatra who betrayed him, he flew to her in his armour, and threw himself at her feet. The palace echoed with acclamations, as though the siege had been raised ; and Antony and Cleopatra spent that day, and part of the night, in the most abandoned folly.

7. Antony now resolved to make the last attempt, both by sea and land, with a fixed resolution to conquer or die. He ordered his attendants to fill him out wine plentifully, saying, " This may be, perhaps, the last piece of service you will be able to do me ; for

to-morrow you may change your master, when I, stretched on the ground, shall be no more."

On the approach of day, Antony drew up his forces on some rising ground out of the city, and from thence beheld his gallies, which were rowing out of the port, and going to attack those of Cæsar; but how shall I express his astonishment when he beheld his admiral delivering up his fleet to his enemy! At the same time his cavalry seeing this, deserted him and went over to Cæsar, when his infantry was obliged to submit. Unhappy Antony, in vain do you fly to the palace to seek Cleopatra, that you may murder her for her pelf; she is not there; the ignominious wretch is retired.

8. Cleopatra had secured herself from his fury among the tombs, which quarter was fortified with good walls, and the gates were shut. She desired that Antony should be told that she had destroyed herself. Struck with the idea of her death, he passed immediately from the excess of rage to the most violent transports of grief, and thought only of following her to the grave. Having taken this resolution, he shut himself up in his apartment, with a freedman, whom he had caused to take off his armor, and commanded him to plunge his dagger into his bosom. But his servant, full of affection, respect, and fidelity for his master, stabbed himself with it, and fell dead at his feet. Antony looking upon this action as an example for him to follow, thrust his sword into his body, and fell upon the floor in a torrent of his blood, which he mingled with that of his faithful servant.

9. At that moment an officer came to let him know that Cleopatra was alive. He no sooner heard her name pronounced, than he opened his dying eyes, suffered his wounds to be dressed, and caused himself to be carried to the fort, where she had shut herself up, Cleopatra would not permit the gates to be opened to give him entrance, for fear of some surprise; but she appeared at a lofty window, from whence she threw down chains and cords. Antony was made fast to these, and Cleopatra, assisted by two women, who were the only persons she had brought with her to the tombs,

drew him up. Never was there a more moving sight! Antony, all bathed in his blood, with death painted in his face, was dragged up into the air, turning his dying eyes, and extending his feeble hands to Cleopatra, as if to conjure her to receive his last breath; while she, with her features distorted, and her arms strained, pulled the cord with her whole strength.

10. When she had drawn him up to her, and placed him on a bed, she threw her clothes upon him, and making the most mournful exclamations, cut off his hair, according to the superstition of the pagans, that that was a relief to those who died a violent death! Her cries recalling his fainting spirits, and seeing the affliction she was in, he told her, with a view to comfort her, that he should die in peace, since he would expire in her arms; and that he did not bish at his defeat, since he had been vanquished by Romans! Having thus spoken, he expired, being then in the fifty-third year of his age. His death put an end to all civil wars, and gave Cæsar an opportunity of completing his ambitious designs.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where did the armies of Cæsar and Antony come to an engagement?—2. What first turned the scale of victory in favour of Cæsar?—3. What extraordinary measure did Cleopatra adopt to prevent falling into the hands of Cæsar?—4. What induced Antony to destroy himself?—5. What was the character of Cleopatra?

DEATH OF CLEOPATRA.

1. Just about the time that Antony breathed his last, Proculeius, who had received particular orders to seize Cleopatra, arrived from Cæsar. He could not refrain from shedding tears on this melancholy occasion, which was aggravated by the bloody sword that was presented to him. The queen refused to go with him, but permitted him to speak to her from without.

2. Proculeius, after having observed the situation of the sepulchre, went and informed Cæsar of his observ-

visions. Caesar then sent Gallus to speak with her, which he did in the same manner as Proculeius. In the mean time, the latter, bringing a ladder, and being followed by two officers, got in at the window, where Antony had been drawn up, and went to the gate, where Cleopatra was talking with Gallus. One of her female attendants, seeing him, shrieked and cried, "Ill fated princess, thou art taken!" Cleopatra had raised a dagger to stab herself, when Proculeius, catching her in his arms, thus addressed her—"You injure both Caesar and yourself, in attempting to deprive him of so noble an opportunity to exert his clemency." He seized her dagger, and shook her robes, to discover if any poison was concealed under them. Caesar then sent a freedman to guard Cleopatra, ordering him to use her like a queen, but to prevent her from laying violent hands upon herself.

3. Caesar then entered Alexandria without further opposition, and gave Cleopatra fair hopes of the kindest treatment; though he intended only to pervert her treasures to his own purposes, and reserve her person to grace his triumph. But when he had both in his power, he disregarded her, and she found she had no other means of avoiding the disgrace of adding to the glory of his triumph, than by putting a period to her life.

4. Caesar went and paid her a visit, when she endeavoured to captivate this young conqueror, as she had before captivated Julius Caesar and Antony. But alas, the charm was now broken! Caesar, with the utmost coolness, only advised her not to despond, declaring that he would treat her with all possible tenderness.

5. He permitted her to dispose of her jewels as she thought proper; and, after giving her the kindest assurances, he left her. Caesar imagined he had artfully over-reached Cleopatra, by inspiring her with a love of life, which he, in fact, wished to prolong, only for the sake of his triumph; but herein he soon found his mistake. Caesar had before given Cleopatra leave to bury Antony, which she did with the utmost magnificence.

According to the custom of Egypt, she caused his body to be embalmed with the most exquisite perfumes of the east, and placed it among the tombs of the Egyptian kings.

6. Cleopatra hearing that Cæsar intended to send her away within three days, conjured him to let her pay her last obligations to the remains of Antony, which he granted. She then visited Antony's tomb, strewing it with flowers, and watering it with tears. She then returned to her chamber, went into a bath, and from thence to the table, where a splendid entertainment was prepared. When she arose from table, she wrote a letter to Cæsar, wherein she earnestly desired to be laid in the same tomb with Antony; and having made all leave her chamber, except her two women, she shut the door, sat down upon the bed, and asked for a basket of figs, which a peasant had lately brought. This supposed peasant was one of the queen's domestics, who had eluded the vigilance of the guards. She placed the basket by her, and a moment after lay down, as if she had fallen asleep; but this was the effect of the asp, which was concealed among the fruit, and had stung her in the arm, which she had held to it. The poison immediately communicated to the heart, and killed her without pain.

7. Thus died, in the thirty-ninth year of her age, this princess, whose wit and beauty had made so much noise in the world, after having reigned twenty-two years from the death of her father, twelve of which she passed with Antony. She was a woman of great parts, as well as of great wickedness; and spoke several languages with the utmost readiness. In her death, ended the reign of the Ptolemies in Egypt, after it had continued from the death of Alexander, 294 years.

8. Cæsar, on the receipt of Cleopatra's letter, instantly despatched a messenger to her, who found her dead on a golden couch, dressed in royal robes, looking like one asleep, with one of her maids dead at her feet, and the other expiring. Cæsar was very much troubled at Cleopatra's death, as it robbed him of the noblest ornament of his triumph. He ordered her be-

dy to be buried near that of Antony, agreeably to her request, which was accordingly done with the greatest funeral pomp. Her women had also a pompous interment, in memory of their fidelity. After Cleopatra's death, Egypt was made a Roman province, and governed by a præfect, sent from Rome for that purpose.

9. Cæsar having now greatly enlarged the Roman dominions, was received at Rome as a conqueror, who had put an end to the miseries and calamities of most nations. He triumphed three days successively, with extraordinary magnificence ; first, for Illyricum ; secondly, for the victory of Actium ; and thirdly for the conquest of Egypt. On this occasion, the temple of Janus was shut, which was the third time since the foundation of Rome, after having stood open 205 years.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who received orders from Cæsar to seize Cleopatra ?—2. Did he succeed in seizing her ?—3. Who was then sent by Cæsar to take her ?—4. What did she attempt doing, when taken ?—5. What were Cæsar's designs, in regard to Cleopatra and her treasures ?—6. What did she aim to do when visited by Cæsar ?—7. How did Cleopatra destroy her life ?—8. What was her age when she destroyed herself ?—9. How long had she reigned ?—10. What reign ended with the death of Cleopatra ?

THE CAPTIVE LADY,

RESTORED TO HER LOVER BY SCIPIO.

1. WHEN to his glorious first essay in war,
New Carthage fell ; there all the flower of Spain
Were kept in hostage ; a full field presenting
For Scipio's generosity to shine.—A noble virgin,
Conspicuous far o'er all the captive dames,
Was mark'd the gen'ral's prize. She wept and blush'd,
Young, fresh and blooming like the morn. An eye,
As when the blue sky trembles through a cloud
Of purest white. A secret charm combin'd
Her features, and infus'd enchantment through them.
Her shape was harmony. But eloquence
Beneath her beauty fails ; which seem'd on purpose

By nature lov'd on her, that mankind
Might see the virtue of a hero try'd,
Almost beyond the stretch of human force.

2. Soft as she pass'd along, with downcast eyes,
Where gentle sorrow swell'd, and now and then,
Dropp'd o'er her modest cheeks a trickling tear,
The Roman legions languish'd, and hard war
Felt more than pity; e'en their chief himself,
As on his high tribunal rais'd he sat,
Turn'd from the dang'rous sight; and, chiding, ask'd
His officers, if by this gift they meant
To cloud his glory in its very dawn.

3. She, questioned of her birth, in trembling accents,
With tears and blushes, broken told her tale:
But, when he found her royally descended;
Of her old captive parents the sole joy;
And that a hapless Celtiberian prince,
Her lover and belov'd, forgot his chains,
His lost dominions, and for her alone
Wept out his tender soul—sudden the heart
Of this young, conquering, loving, godlike Roman,
Felt all the great divinity of virtue.

4. His wishing youth stood check'd; his tempting power,
Restrain'd by kind humanity.—At once,
He for her parents and her lover call'd.
The various scene imagine. How his troops,
Look'd dubious on, and wonder'd what he meant;
While, stretch'd below, the trembling suppliant lay,
Rack'd by a thousand mingling passions—fear,
Hope, jealousy, disdain, submission, grief,
Anxiety, and love, in every shape.
To these, as different sentiments succeeded,
As mix'd emotions, when the man divine
Thus the dread silence to the lover broke—

5. "We both are young—both charm'd. The night
of war
Has put thy beauteous mistress in my power;
With whom I could, in the most sacred ties,

Live out a happy life. But know, that Romans,
 Their hearts, as well enemies, can conquer;
 Then take her to thy soul, and with her, take
 Thy liberty and kingdom. In return,
 I ask but this—when you behold these eyes,
 These charms, with transport, be a friend to Rome.”
 Ecstatic wonder held the lovers mute;
 While the loud camp, and all the clust’ring crowd
 That hung around, rang with repeated shouts.
 Fame took th’ alarm, and through resounding Spain
 Blew fast the fair report; which, more than arms,
 Admiring nations to the Romans gain’d.

DEATH OF CÆSAR.

1. CÆSAR, having been made perpetual dictator, and received from the Senate accumulated honours, it began to be rumored that he intended to make himself king; and though in fact he was possessed of the power, the people, who had an utter aversion to the name, could not bear his assuming the title. Whether he really designed to assume that empty honour, must now for ever remain a secret; but certain it is, that the unsuspecting openness of his conduct marked something like a confidence in the innocence of his intentions.

2. When informed, by those about him, of the jealousies of many persons who envied his power, he was heard to say, that he had rather die once by treason, than to live continually in apprehension of it. When advised by some to beware of Brutus, in whom he had for some time reposed the greatest confidence, he opened his breast, all scarred with wounds, saying, “Can you think Brutus cares for such poor pillage as this?” And being one night at supper, as his friends disputed among themselves what death was easiest, he replied, that which was most sudden and least foreseen. But to convince the world how little he had to apprehend from his enemies, he disbanded his company of Spanish guards, which facilitated the enterprise against his life.

3. A deep conspiracy was therefore laid against him, composed of no less than sixty senators. They were still the more formidable, as the generality of them were of his own party, who having been raised above other citizens, felt more strongly the weight of a single superior. At the head of this conspiracy were Brutus, whose life Cæsar had spared after the battle of Pharsalia, and Cassius, who was pardoned soon after, both prætors for the present year. Brutus made it his chief glory to have descended from that Brutus who first gave liberty to Rome. The passion for freedom seemed to have been transmitted with the blood of his ancestors down to him. But though he detested tyranny, yet he could not forbear loving the tyrant, from whom he had received the most signal benefits.

4. The conspirators, to give a colour of justice to their proceedings, remitted the execution of their design to the Ides of March, the day on which Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and the night preceding, he heard his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her sleep; and being awakened, she confessed to him that she dreamt of his being assassinated in her arms. These omens in some measure began to change his intentions of going to the senate, as he had resolved that day; but one of the conspirators coming in, prevailed upon him to keep his resolution, telling him of the reproach that would attend his staying at home till his wife had lucky dreams, and of the preparations that were made for his appearance.

5. As he went along to the senate, a slave who hastened to him with information of the conspiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered him a memorial, containing the heads of the information; but Cæsar gave it, with other papers, to one of his secretaries, without reading, as was usual in things of this nature. Being at length entered the senate house, where the conspirators were prepared to receive him, he met one Spurina, an augur, who had foretold this danger, to whom he said, smiling,

"Well, Spurina, the ides of March are come." "Yes," replied the augur, "but they are not yet over."

6. As soon as he had taken his place, the conspirators came near him, under pretence of saluting him; and Cimber, who was one of them, approached in a suppliant posture, pretending to sue for his brother's pardon, who had been banished by his order. All the conspirators seconded him with great earnestness; and Cimber, seeming to sue with still greater submission, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him so as to prevent his rising. This was the signal agreed on. Cæsar, who was behind, stabbed him, though slightly, in the shoulder. Cæsar instantly turned round, and with the steel of his stablet, wounded him in the arm.

7. However, all the conspirators were now alarmed; and enclosing him round, he received a second stab, from an unknown hand, in the breast, while Cassius wounded him in the face. He still defended himself with great vigour, rushing among them, and throwing down such as opposed him, till he saw Brutus among the conspirators, who, coming up, stuck his dagger into his thigh. From that moment Cæsar thought no more of defending himself; but looking upon this conspirator, cried out, "And you too, my son!" Then covering his head, and spreading his robe before him in order to fall with greater decency, he sunk down at the base of Pompey's statue, after receiving three-and-twenty wounds from hands which he vainly supposed he had disarmed by his benefits.

8. Cæsar was killed in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and about fourteen years after he began the conquest of the world. If we examine his history, we shall be equally at a loss whether most to admire his great abilities or his wonderful fortune. To pretend to say, that from the beginning he planned the subjugation of his native country, is doing no great credit to his well known penetration, as a thousand obstacles lay in his way, which fortune, rather than conduct, was to surmount. No man, therefore, of his sagacity, would have begun a scheme in which the chances of succeeding were so many against him; it is most probable, that,

like all very successful men, he only made the best of every occurrence; and his ambition rising with his good fortune, from at first being contented with his humbler aims, he at last began to think of governing the world, when he found scarce an obstacle to oppose his designs. Such is the disposition of man, whose cravings after power are always most insatiable when he enjoys the greatest share.

QUESTIONS.

1. What first caused a jealousy against Cæsar?—2. Of what was Cæsar warned to beware?—3. Who engaged with Brutus in a conspiracy to destroy Cæsar?—4. At what age was Cæsar assassinated?

CATILINE'S CONSPIRACY.

1. About sixty-one years before Christ, one of the most dangerous conspiracies broke out that had ever threatened Rome. At the head of this conspiracy was Lucius Sergius Catiline, who was descended from a very illustrious patrician family of great antiquity. He had been brought up amidst the tumults and disorders of a civil war, and had been the instrument of the cruelties of Sylla, to whom he was devoted. Destitute of either morals or probity, he discovered not the least veneration for the gods; and being ever disgusted with the present, was always unhappy with respect to the future.

2. Though master of few abilities, he was bold, rash, and intrepid, and had not even prudence enough properly to conceal his own infernal designs, where it was necessary he should, in order to prevent their miscarriage. As extravagance is the first cause of the violation of all laws, so Catiline, having contracted vast debts, and being unable to pay them, grew desperate, and aimed at nothing less than the highest and most lucrative employments. For this purpose, he associated with those young Romans, whose excesses had ruined their

Fortunes, and rendered them the contempt of every discerning person in the city.

3. These abandoned wretches formed a horrid conspiracy to murder the consuls, and to put to death the greatest part of the senators. Even the day was fixed, which was to have given birth to the most infamous attempt that had ever happened in the commonwealth since the foundation of Rome. - At the signal given by Catiline, they were to rush on the consuls and murder them; but Catiline, being too hasty in the signal, it was not obeyed; and thus the massacre was put off till another time.

4. This conspiracy was daily strengthened by all the young people of Rome, who, having been rocked in the cradle of luxury, and enervated by a continual succession of pleasures; such as had ruined themselves by excesses, and were no longer able to support their extravagancies; the ambitious, who aspired to the highest posts in the state; and others, who had revenge, which they wanted to gratify on some superior; all these, actuated by different passions, embarked in the cause of Catiline, who made them the largest promises, and at the same time exhorted them to employ their interest to procure his being elected consul. No time could better suit the conspirators, as Pompey was then engaged in a war in the east, and Italy had no army to protect it.

5. Cicero, however, who was then consul, found means to bribe Fulvia, a lady of an illustrious family, which she had dishonoured by her criminal amours with one of the chief of the conspirators. From this woman, Cicero got such information as enabled him to counteract all Catiline's projects. - Soon after, Cicero accused Catiline, while he was present in the senate, of his impious design; but he endeavoured to clear himself of the charge. Finding he could not bring the senators to his way of thinking, and being called by them an enemy and a parricide, he cried out in a furious tone of voice, "Since snares are every where laid for me, and those to whom I am odious exasperate me beyond measure, I will not perish singly, but involve my enemies in my ruin."

6. Catiline, having spoken these words, flew out of the senate house, and sending for the chief conspirators, told them what had passed. Then exhorting them to murder the consul, he left Rome that night, accompanied by three hundred of his associates, and went and joined Manlius. He caused lictors, with fasces and axes, to walk before him, as if he had really been a magistrate. Upon the news of this insurrection, the senate ordered Antonius, the consul, to march the legions against the rebels, and Cicero to look after the peace of the city.

7. Soon after, Lentulus, Cethegus, Gabinius, and two more, who were principals of the conspiracy, were arrested, convicted, and conveyed to different prisons. The contest in the senate was long and warm, respecting the nature of the punishment that should be inflicted upon them. It was, however, at last, resolved that they should be put to death; and Cicero, upon the bare sentence of the senate, and without submitting the matter to the people, as was usual, ordered them to be executed in the different prisons in which they were confined. These executions at once crushed the plot, and overturned all the designs of the conspirators, who had that night resolved to rescue them from confinement, that they might immediately join Catiline.

8. News being brought to Catiline's camp, of the late execution, great numbers of his soldiers abandoned him in the night; but this did not disconcert or dishearten Catiline, for he was determined either to ruin the commonwealth, or perish in the attempt. He thereupon raised new forces, filled the cohorts with them, and soon completed the legions, which were all inflamed with the same passion for blood and slaughter and the destruction of their native country. By the good management of the consul, Catiline found himself surrounded by the enemy. He therefore resolved to hazard a battle, though he was considerably inferior in number.

9. Petreius, who had served thirty years in the field, and from a private soldier had been made a general, commanded for the republic in the room of the consul,

who was suddenly taken ill. He engaged Catiline with the greatest bravery, and the battle was sustained on both sides with the utmost intrepidity. Petreius was at last victorious, and the rebels were all put to the sword. But Catiline, who could not bear the thoughts of surviving the ruin of his party, rushed into that part of the battle where death was making the greatest havoc, and there fell a victim to his own folly and iniquity. He was afterwards found among the dead and mangled bodies of the rebels, which lay in heaps. On his pale and lifeless face was still pictured the haughty ferocity of his soul, which even death could not extinguish.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was Catiline's conspiracy formed?—2. What was the object of this conspiracy?—3. Who was instrumental in counteracting this conspiracy?—4. What was the character of Catiline?

THE TEARS OF JUDAH.

Hush'd is the voice of Judah's mirth—
And Judah's minstrels too are gone;
The harps that told Messiah's birth,
And hung on heaven's eternal throne.

Fled is the bright and shining throng
That swell'd on earth the welcome strain,
And lost in air the choral song
That floated wild on David's plain.

For dark and sad is Bethlehem's fate,
Her valleys gush with human blood;
Despair sits mourning at her gate,
And Murder stalks in frantic mood.

At morn, the mother's heart was light,
Her infant bloom'd upon her breast;
At eve, 'twas pale and wither'd quite,
And gone to its eternal rest.

Weep on, ye childless mothers, weep!
 Your babes are hush'd in one cold grave;
 In Jordan's stream their spirits sleep,
 Their blood is mingled with the wave.

DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM.

1. JERUSALEM was built on two mountains, and surrounded by three walls on every side, except where it was enclosed with deep valleys, which were deemed inaccessible. Each wall was fortified by high towers. The celebrated temple, and strong castle of Antonia, were on the east side of the city, and directly opposite to the Mount of Olives. But notwithstanding the prodigious strength of this famed metropolis, the infatuated Jews brought on their own destruction by their intestine contests. At a time when a formidable army was rapidly advancing, and the Jews were assembling from all parts to keep the passover, the contending factions were continually inventing new methods of mutual destruction, and in their ungoverned fury they wasted and destroyed such vast quantities of provisions as might have preserved the city many years.

2. Such was the miserable situation of Jerusalem, when Titus began his march towards it with a formidable army; and, having laid waste the country in his progress, and slaughtered the inhabitants, arrived before its walls. The sight of the Romans produced a temporary reconciliation among the contending factions, and they unanimously resolved to oppose the common enemy. Their first sally was accordingly made with such fury and resolution, that though Titus displayed uncommon valour on this occasion, the besiegers were obliged to abandon their camps, and flee to the mountains. No sooner had the Jews a short interval of quiet from their foreign enemies, than their civil disorders were renewed. John, by an impious stratagem, found means to cut off, or force Eleazer's men to submit to him; and the factions were again reduced to two, who opposed each other with implacable animosity.

3. The Romans, in the mean time, exerted all their energy in making preparations for a powerful attack upon Jerusalem. Trees were cut down, houses levelled, rocks cleft asunder, and valleys filled up; towers were raised, and battering rams erected, with other engines of destruction, against the devoted city. After the offers of peace, which Titus had repeatedly sent by Josephus, were rejected with indignation, the Romans began to play their engines with all their might. The strenuous attacks of the enemy again united the contending parties within the walls, who had also engines, which they plied with uncommon fury. They had taken them lately from Cestius, but were so ignorant of their use, they did little execution, while the Roman legions made terrible havoc. The rebels were soon compelled to retire from the ponderous stones, which they threw incessantly from the towers they had erected, and the battering rams were at full liberty to play against the walls. A breach was soon made in it, at which the Romans entered and encamped in the city, while the Jews retreated behind the second enclosure.

4. The victors immediately advanced to the second wall, and plied their engines and battering rams so furiously, that one of the towers they had erected began to shake, and the Jews, who occupied it, perceiving their impending ruin, set it on fire, and precipitated themselves into the flames. The fall of this structure gave the Romans an entrance into the second enclosure. They were, however, repulsed by the besieged; but at length regained the place entirely, and prepared for attacking the third and inner wall. The vast number of people which were enclosed in Jerusalem, occasioned a famine, which raged in a terrible manner; and, as their calamities increased, the fury of the zealots, if possible, rose to a greater height. They forced open the houses of their fellow citizens, in search of provisions; if they found any, they inflicted the most exquisite tortures upon them, under pretence that they had food concealed. The nearest relations, in the

extremity of hunger, snatched the food from each other.

5. Josephus, who was an eye-witness of the unparalleled sufferings the Jews experienced during the siege of their metropolis, remarks, that "all the calamities that ever befel any nation since the beginning of the world, were inferior to the miseries of his countrymen at this awful period." Thus we see the exact fulfilment of the emphatic words of our Saviour respecting the great tribulation in Jerusalem. *"For then shall be great tribulation, such as was not since the beginning of the world to this time, no; nor ever shall be."*

6. Titus, who was apprized of their wretched condition, relaxed the siege four days; and, being still desirous of saving the city, caused provisions to be distributed to his army in sight of the Jews, who flocked upon the walls to behold it. Josephus was next sent to his countrymen, to attempt to persuade them not to plunge themselves in inevitable ruin, by persisting in defence of a place which could hold out but little longer, and which the Romans looked upon as already their own. He exhorted them, in the most pathetic terms, to save themselves, their temple, and their country; and painted in strong colours the fatal effects which would result from their obstinacy. But the people, after many bitter invectives, began to dart their arrows at him; yet he continued to address them with greater vehemence, and many were induced by his eloquence, to run the utmost risk in order to escape to the Romans; while others became more desperate, and resolved to hold out to the last extremity.

7. The Jews, who were forcibly seized by the Romans without the walls, and who made the utmost resistance for fear of punishment, were scourged and crucified near the city. Famine made them so daring in these excursions, that five hundred, and sometimes more, suffered this dreadful death every day; and, on account of the number, Josephus observes, that "space was wanted for the crosses, and crosses for the captives." And yet, contrary to Titus's intention, the seditious Jews were not disposed to a surrender by these horrid

spectacles. In order to check desertion, they represented the sufferers as suppliants, and not as men taken by resistance. Yet even some, who deemed capital punishment inevitable, escaped to the Romans, considering death, by the hands of their enemies, a desirable refuge, when compared with the complicated distress which they endured. And though Titus mutilated many, and sent them to assure the people that voluntary deserters were well treated by him, and earnestly to recommend a surrender of the city, the Jews reviled Titus from the walls, defied his menaces, and continued to defend the city by every method which stratagem, courage, and despair, could suggest.

8. In order to accelerate the destined ruin of Jerusalem, Titus, discouraged and exasperated by the repeated destruction of his engines and towers, undertook the arduous task of enclosing the city with a strong wall, in order to prevent the inhabitants from receiving any succour from the adjacent country, or eluding his vengeance by flight. Such was the persevering spirit of the soldiers, that in three days they enclosed the city by a wall nearly five miles in circuit. Thus was the prophecy of our Saviour accomplished: "*The days shall come upon thee, when thine enemies shall cast a trench about thee, and compass thee round, and keep thee in on every side.*" Upon this, the famine raged with augmented violence, and destroyed whole families; while Jerusalem exhibited a horrid spectacle of emaciated invalids and putrescent bodies. The dead were too numerous to be interred; and many expired in the performance of this office. The public calamity was too great for lamentation, and the silence of unutterable woe overspread the city.

9. The zealots, at this awful period, endeavoured to encourage the obstinacy of the people, by hiring a set of wretches, pretenders to prophecy, to go about the city, and declare the near approach of a speedy and miraculous deliverance. This impious stratagem for a while afforded delusive hopes to the miserable remains of the Jewish nation. But at length an affair took place in Jerusalem, which filled the inhabitants with consterna-

tion and despair; and the Romans with horror and indignation. A Jewess, eminent for birth and opulence, rendered frantic with her sufferings, was reduced to the dreadful extremity of killing and feeding upon her infant. Titus, being apprized of this inhuman deed, swore the total extirpation of the accursed city and people; and called Heaven to witness, that he was not the author of their calamity.

10. The Romans, having pursued the attack with the utmost rigour, advanced their last engines against the walls, after having converted into a desert, for wood to construct them, a country well planted, and interspersed with gardens, for more than eleven miles round the city. They scaled the inner wall, and after a sanguinary encounter, made themselves masters of the fortress of Antonia. Still, however, not only the zealots, but many of the people, were yet so blinded, that, though nothing was now left but the temple, and the Romans were making formidable preparation to batter it down, they could not persuade themselves that God would suffer that holy place to be taken by heathens; but still expected a miraculous deliverance. And though the war was advancing towards the temple, they themselves burnt the portico, which joined it to Antonia; which occasioned Titus to remark, that they began to destroy, with their own hands, that magnificent edifice, which he had preserved.

11. The Roman commander had determined in council not to burn the temple, considering the existence of so proud a structure an honour to himself. He therefore attempted to batter down one of the galleries of the precinct; but as the strength of the wall eluded the force of all his engines, his troops next endeavoured to scale it, but were repulsed with considerable loss. When Titus found, that his desire of saving the sacred building was likely to cost many lives, he set fire to the gates of the outer temple, which, being plaited with silver, burnt all night, and the flame rapidly communicated to the adjacent galleries and porticoes. Titus, who was still desirous of preserving the temple, caused the flames to be extinguished; and appeased

the clamours of his troops, who vehemently insisted on the necessity of razing it to the ground. The following day was therefore fixed upon, for a general assault upon that magnificent structure.

12. The utmost exertions of Titus to save the temple were, however, ineffectual. Our Saviour had foretold its total destruction; and his awful prediction was about to be accomplished. "And now," says Josephus, "the fatal day approached in the revolution of ages, the 10th of August, emphatically called *the day of vengeance*, in which the first temple had been destroyed by the king of Babylon." While Titus was reposing himself in his pavilion, a Roman soldier, without receiving any command, but urged as it were by a divine impulse, seized some of the blazing materials, and with the assistance of another soldier, who raised him from the ground, threw them through a window into one of the apartments that surrounded the sanctuary. The whole north side, up to the third story, was immediately enveloped in flames. The Jews, who now began to suppose that Heaven had forsaken them, rushed in with violent lamentations, and spared no effort, not even life itself, to preserve the sacred edifice on which they had rested their security.

13. Titus, being awakened by the outcry, hastened to the spot, and commanded his soldiers to exert themselves to the utmost to extinguish the fire. He called, prayed, and threatened his men. But so great was the clamour and tumult, that his entreaties and menaces were alike disregarded. The exasperated Romans, who resorted thither from the camp, were engaged either in increasing the conflagration, or killing the Jews; the dead were heaped about the altar, and a stream of blood flowed at its steps.

14. Still, as the flames had not reached the inner part of the temple, Titus, with some of his chief officers, entered the sanctuary and most holy place, which excited his astonishment and admiration. After having in vain repeated his attempts to prevent its destruction, he saved the golden candlestick, the table

of shew bread, the altar of perfumes, which were all of pure gold; and the volume of the law, wrapped up in a rich golden tissue. Upon his leaving the sacred place, some other soldiers set fire to it, after tearing off the golden plating from the gates and timber work.

15. A horrid massacre soon followed, in which prodigious multitudes perished; while others rushed, in a kind of frenzy, into the midst of the flames, and precipitated themselves from the battlements of their falling temple. Six thousand persons, who, deluded by a false prophet with the hopes of a miraculous deliverance, had fled to a gallery yet standing without the temple, perished at once, by the relentless barbarity of the soldiers, who set it on fire, and suffered none to escape. The conquerors carried their fury to such a height as to massacre all they met, without distinction of age, sex, or quality. They also burnt all the treasure houses, containing vast quantities of money, plate, and the richest furniture. In a word, they continued to mark their progress with fire and sword, till they had destroyed all, except two of the temple gates, and that part of the court which was destined for the women.

16. In the mean time, many of the zealots, by making the most vigorous exertions, effected their escape from the temple, and retired into the city. But the avenues were so strictly guarded, that it was impossible for them to escape. They therefore fortified themselves, as well as they were able, on the south side of it; from whence John and Simon sent to desire a conference with Titus. They were answered, that though they had caused all this ruin and effusion of blood, yet their lives should be spared, if they would surrender themselves. They replied, that "they had engaged, by the most solemn oaths, not to deliver up their persons to him on any condition; and requested permission to retire to the mountains with their wives and children." The Roman general, enraged at this insolence, ordered proclamation to be made, that not one of them should be spared, since they persisted in rejecting his last offers of pardon.

17. The daughter of Zion, or the lower city, was next abandoned to the fury of the Roman soldiers, who plundered, burnt, and massacred, with insatiable rage. The zealots next betook themselves to the royal palace, in the upper and stronger part of Jerusalem, styled also the city of David, on Mount Zion. As many of the Jews had deposited their possessions in the palace for security, they attacked it, killed eight thousand four hundred of their countrymen, and plundered their property.

18. The Roman army spent nearly twenty days in making great preparations for attacking the upper city, especially the royal palace; during which time many came and made their submission to Titus. The warlike engines then played so furiously upon the zealots, that they were seized with a sudden panic, quitted the towers which were deemed impregnable, and ran like mad men towards Shiloah, intending to have attacked the wall of circumvallation, and escaped out of the city. But being vigorously repulsed, they endeavoured to conceal themselves in subterraneous passages; and as many as were discovered, were put to death.

19. The conquest of Jerusalem being now completed, the Romans placed their ensigns upon the walls with triumphant joy. They next walked the streets, with swords in their hands, and killed all they met. Amidst the darkness of that awful night, fire was set to the remaining divisions of the city, and Jerusalem wrapt in flames, and in every side utter ruin and destruction. During the siege, which lasted nearly five months, upwards of eleven hundred thousand Jews perished. John and Simon, the two grand rebels, with seven hundred of the most beautiful and vigorous of the Jewish youth, were reserved, to attend the victor's triumphal chariot. After which, Simon was put to death; and John, who had stooped to beg his life, condemned to perpetual imprisonment.

20. The number who were taken captive, during the fatal contest with the Romans, amounted to ninety-seven thousand, many of whom were sent into Syria, and other provinces, to be exposed on the public the-

atres, to fight like gladiators, or to be devoured by wild beasts. The number of those destroyed, during the war, which lasted seven years, is computed to have been one million four hundred and sixty-two thousand. When the sword had returned to its scabbard, for want of objects whereon to exercise its fury, and the troops were satisfied with plunder, Titus commanded the whole city and temple to be demolished. Thus were our Saviour's prophecies fulfilled—" *Thine enemies shall lay thee even with the ground, and there shall not be left one stone upon another.*"

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Titus commence his march towards Jerusalem?
- 2. What feast were the Jews observing at this time?—3. By whom did Titus frequently send offers of peace?—4. What distressing consequences resulted from having such multitudes of Jews shut up in Jerusalem?—5. What caused Titus to resolve on the complete ruin of Jerusalem, and the extirpation of its inhabitants?—6. What induced him to wish the preservation of the temple?—7. And what finally determined him to destroy it?—8. How long did the siege last?—9. How many Jews perished in it?

ORDER OF NATURE.

SEE, through this air, this ocean, and this earth,
 How quick, and how far, thy birth.
 How high progress thou may go!
 Around, how wide! how deep extend below!
 Vast chain of being! which from God began,
 Natures ethereal, human, angel, man,
 Beast, bird, fish, insect! what no eye can see;
 No glass can reach! from infinite to thee,
 From thee to nothing! on superior powers
 Were we to press, inferior might on ours;
 Or in the full creation leave a void,
 Where, one step broken, the great scale's destroy'd;
 From nature's chain, whatever link you strike,
 Tenth or ten thousandth, breaks the chain alike.

2. What if the foot, ordain'd the dust to tread,
 Or hand to toil, aspir'd to be the head ?
 What if the head, the eye, or ear, repin'd
 To serve mere engines of the ruling mind
 Just as absurd, for any part to claim
 To be another, in this gen'ral frame ;
 Just as absurd, to mourn the tasks or pains,
 The great directing MIND of ALL ordains.

3. All are but parts of one stupendous whole,
 Whose body Nature is, and God the soul ;
 That chang'd through all, and yet in all the same,
 Great in the earth, as in th' ethereal frame ;
 Warms in the sun, refreshes in the breeze,
 Glows in the stars, and blossoms in the trees,
 Lives through all life, extends through all extent,
 Spreads undivided, operates unspent,
 Breathes in our soul, informs our mortal part,
 As full, as perfect, in a hair as heart ;
 As full, as perfect, in vile man that mourns,
 As the rapt seraph that adores and burns ;
 To him, no high, no low, no great, no small ;
 He fills, he bounds, connects and equals all.

4. Cease, then, nor *Order* Imperfection name ;
 Our proper bliss depends on what we blame.
 Know thy own point ; this kind, this due degree
 Of blindness, weakness, Heaven bestows on thee. . .
 Submit in this, or any other sphere,
 Secure to be as blest as thou canst bear ;
 Safe in the hand of one disposing Power,
 Or in the natal, or the mortal hour.
 All nature is but art unknown to thee ;
 All chance, direction, which thou canst not see ;
 All discord, harmony, not understood ;
 All partial evil, universal good ;—
 And, spite of pride, in erring reason's spite,
 One truth is clear, " Whatever is, is RIGHT."

THE FALL OF ROME.

1. **AFTER** various wars and competitions, Constantine, in the year of Christ 320, became sole master of the Roman empire. He certainly did whatever could be done, by an accomplished general and statesman, toward restoring the empire to its ancient glory. But, alas! he did not reign over the ancient Romans. His people had been often defeated, humbled, enslaved, and trampled in the dust. The true Roman spirit was long since utterly extinguished; and, as we have had occasion to observe, Italy itself was filled with a mighty heterogeneous mass of population, of no fixed character. His strong genius, for a moment, sustained, but could not ultimately save, the falling fabric.

2. The ambition of Constantine gave a more fatal blow to the Roman empire, than even the vices of Commodus. To secure to himself a glory equal to that of Romulus, he formed the resolution of changing the seat of empire. The place upon which he pitched as a new capital, and which should immortalize his name, was indeed well chosen. The ancient city of Byzantium enjoyed the finest port in the world, on the strait of the Thracian Bosphorus, which communicates with those inland seas, whose shores are formed by the most opulent and delightful countries of Europe and Asia. ~~Further~~ Constantine caused the wealth of the empire to be conveyed; and directly a new and splendid city arose, which was able to rival ancient Rome. That proud capital, so long the mistress of empire, suddenly became but a satellite, and was forsaken of honour, wealth, and glory; since the emperor, and all who were devoted to his interest, used every possible means to exalt the new seat of empire.

3. This wound was deadly and incurable. It proved fatal not only to one city, but to the western empire. Rome was utterly abandoned by Constantine; nor was it much alleviated under his successors, among whom a permanent division of the empire taking place, Rome and Italy fell under the government of a series of weak,

miserable, short-lived tyrants, who rose by conspiracy, and fell by murder, in rapid succession; till, in the 476th year of the Christian æra, Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors, was conquered and dethroned by Odoacer, king of the Heruli, who, at the head of an immense army of barbarians, overran all Italy, and put a period to the western empire.

4. Thus ended Rome, after having stood 1229 years. When we consider the length of her duration, her character, and the nature and extent of her resources, we shall not hesitate to pronounce her the most powerful and important city which ever existed, and as standing at the head of the first rank of cities. But if this remark is true of Rome in the times of which we are now speaking, it will serve to awaken our admiration, when we consider that Rome survived even this shock; and, as though she was destined to bear rule, from being the head of a most powerful empire, she soon became the head of an ecclesiastical institution not less powerful. She spread her wing over all the powers of Europe. They trembled at her mandates. She deposed monarchs at her pleasure, trampled on crowns and sceptres, and, for ten centuries, exerted the most despotic sovereignty. She is, even to this day, one of the finest cities in the world.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Constantine become master of Rome?—2. What method did he adopt to immortalize his name?—3. What was the original name of Constantinople?—4. Who put a period to the Roman empire?—5. When did he do it?—6. How long had Rome then existed?

RISE OF MAHOMETANISM.

1. WHATEVER might have been the extraction of Mahomet, his property was small. He engaged himself as a servant to a rich widow of Mecca, who bestowed on him her hand and her fortune, and raised him to the rank of an opulent citizen. He is said to have

been a man of extraordinary bodily and mental accomplishments. The former part of his character is probable, the latter is unquestionable. The endowments of his mind, however, were the gifts of nature, not of education, since, as it is asserted, he was wholly illiterate.—Such was the man, who was destined to effect the greatest revolution in human ideas, as well as in human affairs, that has ever taken place since the establishment of Christianity. Inspired by enthusiasm or ambition, he withdrew to a cave about three miles from the city, and having there spent some time in silent contemplation, announced himself a prophet of the Most High, and proclaimed the religion of the Koran.

2. The religion then prevailing in Arabia was Zabaism, which, as in all other countries, had degenerated into the grossest idolatry; but as universal toleration and uncivilized freedom there prevailed, while the adjacent countries were shaken with the storms of conquest and tyranny, the victims of political and religious oppression took refuge in the deep recesses of those extensive deserts. In the reigns of Titus and Adrian, great numbers of Jews had retired into Arabia, and Christians of all the persecuted sects had sought the same calm retreat. Arabia, therefore, displayed a mixture of Pagans, Jews, and Christians of all sects and denominations.

3. Mahomet, although destitute of literature, had studied the book of nature and of man, and conceived the great design of instituting a religion that might unite all the Arabians under its banners; and his scheme was admirably calculated for that purpose. His observations on the state of the world, might convince him that idolatry was not only an unreasonable, but a declining system. His naturally strong understanding and sound judgment, would enable him to perceive the existence of one Supreme and sole Deity to be so rational an article of belief, that no permanent system of religion could be established, except on that solid basis. By testifying his regard for the Scriptures, and acknowledging the prophetic character and divine

mission of Moses and Jesus, he lessened the prejudices of the Jews and Christians against his doctrine, while his recommendation, and practice of prayer, fasting, and mass, acquired him the reputation of superior sanctity.

4. Comprising in his grand design a military, as well as a religious system, he promised a paradise of sensual delights, to all who should fall in the cause of his faith. He allowed polygamy, to which he knew the Arabians to be strongly inclined; but he reprobated drunkenness, to which they had much less propensity. Considering intoxication as a vice degrading to human nature, and incompatible with a capacity for great understandings, he resolved to take away the temptation to a habit so pernicious, by prohibiting the use of inebriating liquors. To investigate all the particulars of his system, would lead to a tedious prolixity; and it suffices to observe, that they were admirably adapted to the ideas and circumstances of his countrymen. His pretensions, however, to a celestial authority, excited the jealousy of the citizens of Mecca, and a powerful faction expelled him from his native city.

5. In the year of the Christian æra 622, the memorable epoch of the Hegira, Mahomet, with his friend Abubekar, and a few other followers, escaping from Mecca, fled to Medina, where he assumed the military, as well as the prophetic character. Having made many proselytes in that place, he assembled a determined and daring band, inspired with enthusiasm, and animated with the expectation of a paradise of sensual delights, which he promised to all his followers, but in a superior degree of glory and pleasure to those who should fall in the cause of the Koran. This was the first vital spark of the empire of the Arabs. Here he assumed the exercise of the regal as well as the sacerdotal function; and declared himself authorized to use force as well as persuasion, in order to propagate his doctrines. Liberty of conscience was granted to Christians and Jews, on condition of the payment of tribute; but to

idolaters, no other alternative was left, but conversion or the sword.

6. By inculcating, in the most absolute sense, the doctrines of fate and predestination, he extinguished the principles of fear, and exalted the courage of his followers into a dauntless confidence. By impressing strongly on the ardent imagination of the Arabs a voluptuous picture of the invisible world, he brought them to regard death as an object not of dread, but of hope and desire. From all sides, the rovers of the desert were allured to the standard of religion and plunder; and the holy robbers were soon able to intercept the trading caravans. In all enterprises of danger and difficulty, their leader promised them the assistance of the angel Gabriel, with his legions of the heavenly host; and his authoritative eloquence impressed on their enthusiastic imaginations the forms of those angelic warriors, invisible to mortal eyes. By these arts, he inspired his followers with an irresistible enthusiasm.

7. A regular war was commenced between the Mahometans and the inhabitants of Mecca, in consequence of an attack by the former upon a caravan belonging to the latter. The caravan was plundered, although it was escorted by 950 men, while the assailants amounted to no more than 313. In the year 625, the Meccans, with about 10,000 men, laid siege to Medina, but without success; and finally lost all hopes of subverting the throne, or of putting a stop to the conquests of the exiled prophet. Mahomet, encouraged by their defeat, directed his attention to the subjugation of Mecca, his native city. His power had increased by the submission of several Arabian tribes; and his army, which consisted of a few hundreds only, now amounted to 10,000 enthusiastic warriors. Mecca surrendered on his approach, and acknowledged him as the apostle of God. Thus, after seven years of exile, the fugitive was enthroned as the prince and prophet of his country.

8. The conquest of Mecca determined the faith and obedience of the principal Arabian tribes, and the obstinate remnant, which still adhered to the idolatry of their ancestors, was soon subdued or extirpated. The

famous kaaba, or pantheon of Mecca, was purified, and 350 idols, with which it was defiled, were broken in pieces. The sentence of destruction was in the same manner executed on all the idols of Arabia. All the people of that vast country adopted the worship of one God, and acknowledged Mahomet as his prophet and their sovereign. The rites of pilgrimage were, through piety or policy, re-established. The prophet himself set an example to future ages, by fulfilling the duties of a pilgrim; and 114,000 pious believers accompanied his last visit to the kaaba, or house of God. A perpetual law was also enacted, prohibiting all unbelievers in the Koran from setting foot within the precincts of the holy city.

9. A revolution was thus effected in an obscure corner of the world, which shortly after subverted or shook the most powerful monarchies, and extended its effects to the distant regions of Asia, Africa, and Europe. The prophet of Arabia commenced hostilities with the Greek empire, and unfurled his banners on the confines of Syria; but after having lost some of his most intrepid commanders, without having made any great progress, the war was neither of long continuance, nor productive of any remarkable events. The mission and life of Mahomet now drew near to an end. During the space of four years, his health had gradually declined; but till the third day preceding his dissolution, he performed the functions of public prayer, and asserting to the last the divine authority of his mission, he expired, at about the age of sixty-three, with the firmness of a philosopher, and the faith of an enthusiast.

10. In making an impartial estimate of the qualifications which distinguished the prophet of Arabia, it must be acknowledged that the vigour of his mind, and the measure of his intellectual powers, appear to have been extraordinary. At the commencement of his mission, his hopes could rest only on a very precarious foundation. The difficulties which he had to encounter were great. During a considerable time, converts were slowly made, and his prospects of success were far from being such as could animate his efforts, or flat-

ter his hopes. Amidst all these embarrassing circumstances, his enterprising spirit, his steady fortitude, and his patient perseverance, command admiration.

11. But among the distinguishing characteristics of his mind, his extraordinary talent of knowing mankind is the most remarkable. No one had ever more accurately or more successfully, studied human nature. No one more exactly knew what suited the ideas and inclinations of men, or more perfectly understood the method of gaining an ascendancy over their minds, and of rendering their passions subservient to a great design. An impartial view of the character of this extraordinary man, shows that he was formed for every thing that is great, that his ideas were grand and elevated, and his views extensive.

QUESTIONS.

1. How did Mahomet acquire his riches?—2. Where was the Koran written?—3. What was the religion of Arabia when Mahomet began his career?—4. What is his flight to Medina called?—5. When did it take place?—6. What toleration did he allow the Jews and Christians of Arabia?—7. How long had he been exiled from Mecca, when it surrendered to his arms?—8. At what age did he die?

EMPIRE OF CHINA.

1. The antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainments in the arts and sciences, have furnished a most ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers of similar principles, have, for the purpose of discrediting the scriptural account of the origin of mankind, and the received notions of the age of the universe, given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilization and knowledge of the sciences and arts at that remote period, as to be utterly irreconcilable with the state and progress of man, as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions has

induced other writers of ability to go to an opposite extreme ; to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have, either of the duration of their empire, the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments, we shall endeavour to form such opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrist of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress ; in evidence of which they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2155 years before the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof, therefore, amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened ; but this neither has been nor can be done ; for it is an allowed fact, that there are no regular historical records beyond the third century before the christian æra. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore in all probability been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the emperors, and flatter the national vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilization, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigotted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilization, and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hin-

The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance, but has no grandeur or symmetrical beauty.

8. Yet, in some of the arts, the Chinese have attained to great perfection. (Agriculture) is carried in China to the highest pitch of improvement. There is not a spot of waste land in the whole empire, nor any which is not highly cultivated. The emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. Hence, and from the modes of economising food, is supported the astonishing population of 333 millions, or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention of this people; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain to the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished much subject both of encomium and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain a most admirable system of morality; but the principles of morals have their foundation in human nature, and must, in theory, be every where the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are, in China, as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes are said to be beyond measure loose, and their practices most dishonest; nor are they regulated by any principle but selfish interest, or restrained but by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. The emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Changli*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the Lama of Thibet, as the high-priest or prophet of this religion.

A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-see*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divining of future events. A third is the sect of *Fo*, derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all things rose out of nothing, and finally must return to it; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that, as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols are worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books, termed *Kings*, which, amidst some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultimatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone; the changes of weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are therefore carefully observed and recorded; and the rules by which those omens are interpreted are said to have been prescribed by the great Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy, 500 years before the Christian æra.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilization; but that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers, rests on no solid proof; nor are their government, laws, manners, arts, or scientific attainments, at all deserving of that superlative and most exaggerated encomium which has been bestowed on them.

13. From time's remotest dawn, where China brings,
In proud succession, all her patriot kings;
O'er desert sands, deep gulfs, and hills sublime,
Extends her massy wall from clime to clime;

With bells and dragons crests her pagod-bowers,
Her silken palaces, and porcelain towers;
With long canals a thousand nations laves;
Plants all her wilds, and peoples all her waves.

QUESTIONS.

1. To whom does Sir William Jones trace the origin of the Chinese?—2. What is the government of China?—3. How are honours in China conferred?—4. What is the state of the sciences in China at this time?—5. What arts in China are carried to a great degree of perfection?—6. What Chinese writer is said to have a good system of morality?—7. What are the morals of the lower classes in China?—8. What is the religion of the emperor and the higher mandarins?

CHARLES V. EMPEROR OF GERMANY.

1. CHARLES V. emperor of Germany, king of Spain, and lord of the Netherlands, was born at Ghent, in the year 1500. He is said to have fought sixty battles, in most of which he was victorious; to have obtained six triumphs, conquered four kingdoms, and to have added eight principalities to his dominions; an almost unparalleled instance of worldly prosperity, and the greatness of human glory.

2. But all these fruits of his ambition, and all the honours that attended him, could not yield true and solid satisfaction. Reflecting on the evils and miseries which he had occasioned, and convinced of the emptiness of earthly magnificence, he became disgusted with all the splendour that surrounded him; and thought it his duty to withdraw from it, and spend the rest of his days in religious retirement.

3. Accordingly, he voluntarily resigned all his dominions to his brother and son; and after taking an affectionate and last farewell of his son, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility that respectfully attended him, he repaired to his chosen retreat. It was situated in Spain, in a vale of no great extent, watered by a small brook, and surrounded with rising grounds covered with lofty trees.

4. A deep sense of his frail condition and great imperfections, appears to have impressed his mind in this extraordinary resolution, and through the remainder of his life. As soon as he landed in Spain, he fell prostrate on the ground, and considering himself now as dead to the world, he kissed the earth, and said, "Naked came I into the world, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind!"

5. In this humble retreat, he spent his time in religious exercises and innocent employments; and buried here in solitude and silence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all those vast projects, which for near half a century had alarmed and agitated Europe, and filled every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being subjected to his power.

6. Far from taking any part in the political transactions of the world, he restrained his curiosity even from any inquiry concerning them; and seemed to view the busy scene he had abandoned, with an elevation and indifference of mind, which arose from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleasing reflection of having disengaged himself from its cares and temptations.

7. Here he enjoyed more complete contentment, than all his grandeur had ever yielded him; as a full proof of which he left this short, but comprehensive testimony; "I have tasted more satisfaction in my solitude, in one day, than in all the triumphs of my former reign. The sincere study, profession and practice of the christian religion, have in them such joys and sweetness, as are seldom found in courts and grandeur."

QUESTIONS.

1. Where and when was Charles V. born?—2. How many battles is he said to have fought?—3. How many kingdoms to have conquered?—4. What extraordinary act characterized the latter part of his life.

MAHOMET.

1. O'ER fair Arabia's spicy plains,
By foul Mahomet's flag unfurl'd,
Despotic superstition reigns,
Clanking aloft her mental chains;
Affrighting, blinding, half the abject eastern world.
2. As spreads the mountain torrent wide;
With dreadful desolating course;
So, bursting forth on every side,
Urg'd by ambition, lust and pride,
The bloody prophet strides with overwhelming force.
3. So was the beauteous East despoil'd
Of nature's gifts; of arts renown'd;
Her shady groves, her mountains wild;
Her fanes o'erthrown, in ruins pil'd;
Or clear'd, to let his mosque profane the hallow'd
ground.
4. Aloft the gilded crescent now
(Where once the cross) triumphant rears,
Blind ignorance bids her votaries bow,
Repeat the Koran, breathe the vow,
Or vainly pray to one who neither sees nor hears.
5. The Turk's own mind example gives,
Of what such superstition breeds;
Debas'd, luxurious, proud, he lives;
Despises knowledge, and believes
His sword, his haram, all he now or ever needs.

THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. THE inhabitants of the north of Europe and Asia, who issued in great multitudes from their native forests, during the fourth and fifth centuries of the christian æra, and who overturned the Roman empire, introduced a new species of government into the conquered coun-

tries, which is known by the name of the Feudal System. It is very remarkable, that although the barbarians who framed it, settled in their newly acquired territories at various times, were commanded by different leaders, and spoke different languages; yet the system was established, with little variation, in every country in Europe. This great uniformity is peculiarly striking, and has furnished some writers with an argument, that all these people sprung originally from the same stock. But the fact may perhaps with more probability be attributed to the similar state of their manners, and the similar situation in which they all found themselves, on taking possession of their new domain.

2. The *plan* of the *feudal* constitution was this:—Every freeman, or soldier, for the terms were at that period synonymous, upon receiving an allotment of conquered lands, bound himself to appear in arms against the common enemy, whenever he should be called upon by his commander. This military service was the condition upon which every one received, and the tenure by which he continued to possess, his lands; and this obligation was esteemed both easy and honourable. The same service which a soldier owed to his officer, was due from an officer to his king. The king obliged those among whom he distributed the conquered lands, to repair to his standard, with a number of followers, in proportion to the extent of their respective estates, and to assist him in all his expeditions. Thus a feudal kingdom conveys rather the idea of a military than a civil establishment. The victorious army, taking their posts in different districts of a country, continued to be arranged under its proper officers, and to be subject to martial law.

3. The principle of policy upon which this singular establishment was founded, was self-defence. The new settlers in a country wished to protect themselves, not only against the attacks of the inhabitants, whom they had expelled from their possessions, but against the more formidable inroads of fresh invaders. But, unfortunately for the happiness of mankind, and the tran-

quillity of society, it was replete with many evils. (The powerful vassals of the crown soon acquired that land as unalienable property, which was originally a grant during pleasure, and appropriated to themselves titles of honour, as well as places of trust.) In process of time, they obtained the power of sovereign jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, within their own domains; and they exercised the privilege of coining money, and of carrying on wars against their own private enemies.

4. Barons possessed of such enormous power, disdained to consider themselves as subjects; and the consequence was, that a kingdom was broken into as many separate principalities, as it contained powerful nobles. Innumerable causes of jealousy and discord subsisted between them, and gave rise to constant wars. Every country in Europe, either wasted or kept in continual alarm during these feuds, was filled with castles and places of strength erected for the security of the despotic chieftain, not against foreign invasion, but domestic hostilities. In the reign of Stephen of England, when the feudal system was in its height, not less than a thousand castles, with their dependent territories, are said to have covered the southern part of the island of Great Britain. Among fierce and haughty chieftains, the laws enacted by princes and magistrates commanded no degree of respect; and the right of retaliation and revenge was considered as an inherent privilege of their order.

5. In fine, the estate of every baron was an independent territory; his castle was a strong and well garrisoned fortress, and he always considered himself as living in a state of war. When provoked by injury, he met his adversary at the head of his vassals in hostile array, and trusted to his sword for the decision of the contest. Every man was the avenger of his own wrongs, and sought the redress of his grievances in single combat, the regulation and ceremonies of which were formed into a system of jurisprudence. The common people, the most numerous and most useful part of the community, were reduced to the miseries of slavery. The peasant was considered as the mere produce of

the soil, and was transferred from one lord to another, with the utensils and cattle of his farm. The king, stripped of almost every prerogative, and possessing little more than the empty title of sovereign, had neither power to protect the innocent, nor to punish the guilty. Indeed, a general anarchy, destructive of all the comforts which men expect to derive from a state of society, prevailed.

6. To complete and confirm these evils, the progress of time gradually fixed and rendered venerable an establishment, which originated in violence, and was continued with every species of despotism and injustice; a system which was as hostile to the intellectual as to the moral improvement of the mind; which banished science and the arts, sunk mankind into gross ignorance, obscured the sacred light of Christianity in the thickest darkness of superstition, and was favourable only to the growth of those stern virtues, which are characteristic of uncivilized nations. The rigour of tyranny hardened the minds of the nobles, the yoke of vassalage debased the spirit of the people, the generous sentiments inspired by a sense of equality were extinguished, and there was no check to ferocity and violence. Accordingly a greater number of those atrocious actions, which fill the mind with astonishment and horror occur in the history of the feudal times, than in that of any period of the same extent in the annals of Europe.

7. Such was the deplorable state of society from the seventh to the eleventh century. From that æra may be dated the return of government, laws, and manners, in a contrary direction. We shall hereafter notice the favourable effects of the Crusades and Chivalry upon the feudal system. In succeeding times, a variety of causes began to operate, which checked the licentiousness of the barons, softened the ferocity of their manners, and finally put a period to their domination. (The establishment of standing armies in the fifteenth century) gave more effectual authority to kings; and from that time they no longer regarded the nobles as their equals, or found it necessary to have recourse to timid counsels, or feeble efforts, to controul their power.

They began, not only to wield the sceptre, but to brandish the sword; and either checked the designs of their barons by intimidation, or punished their rebellion by force.

8. Charles the Seventh, of France, urged by his desire of expelling the English from France in the year 1445, was the first who adopted this measure; but as it was so repugnant to the genius of the feudal system, and required the greatest boldness to carry it into execution, he retained a large body of forces in his service, and appointed funds for their regular payment. The principal nobility soon resorted to his standard, and looked up to him as the judge and the rewarder of merit. The feudal militia, composed of men of rank and military talents, who were only occasionally called out, were in time regarded with contempt, by soldiers accustomed to the operations of regular service.

9. The above example of breaking the independent power of the barons, was followed by the politic Henry VII. of England. He undermined that edifice, which it was not prudent to attack with open force. By judicious laws he permitted his nobles to break the entail upon their estates, and to expose them to sale. He prohibited them from keeping numerous bands of retainers, which had rendered them formidable to his predecessors. By encouraging agriculture and commerce, and all the arts of peace during a long reign, and by enforcing a vigorous and impartial execution of the laws, he not only removed many immediate evils resulting from the feudal system, but provided against their future return. The influence of his salutary plans was gradually felt, and they contributed more and more, in process of time, to the good order, prosperity, and general welfare of his subjects.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who instituted the Feudal System of government?—2. What was the plan of this System?—3. What was the principle of policy upon which it was founded?—4. Was it attended with evils?—5. What were some of these evils?—6. What was the continuance of the deplorable state of society occasioned by the Feudal System?—7. What establishment restored to kings their proper authority?—8. At what time were standing

armies introduced?—9. What king of France adopted this method to destroy the Feudal System?—10. What king of England followed his example in this particular?

THE CRUSADES.

1. THE Crusades were expeditions undertaken for the recovery of the Holy Land out of the hands of the Infidels or Saracens. They derive their name from the French word *croix*, cross, which the adventurers in these holy wars always wore, as an ensign of their cause. The Crusades began in the eleventh century, and continued about two hundred years. They are important to the historian, as involving the interests of the principal nations of Europe, at that time; and to the philosopher, as fraught with consequences intimately connected with the happiness of succeeding generations. They were also highly important, if we consider the great numbers who were engaged in them, or their long and obstinate perseverance in the same design, notwithstanding an almost uninterrupted series of hardships, losses, and defeats.

2. It is natural to the human mind, to view those places which have been distinguished by being the residence of any illustrious personage, or the scene of any great transaction, with some degree of delight and veneration. Hence, Judea, or the Holy Land, has been an object of veneration with Christians from the earliest ages of the church; and, in periods of great ignorance, this veneration has nearly approached to idolatry. To visit the country which the Almighty had selected as the inheritance of his favourite people, and in which the Son of God had accomplished the redemption of mankind, was regarded as the most acceptable service that could be paid to heaven. And as this distinct pilgrimage could not be performed without considerable expense, fatigue, and danger, it appeared the more meritorious, and came to be considered as an expiation for almost every crime.

3. An opinion which spread with rapidity over Europe about the close of the tenth and beginning of the eleventh century, and which gained universal credit, wonderfully augmented the number of credulous pilgrims, and increased the ardour with which they undertook this perilous voyage. The thousand years mentioned by St. John, were supposed to be accomplished, and the end of the world to be at hand. A general consternation seized mankind; many relinquished their possessions; and abandoning their friends and families, hurried with precipitation to the Holy Land, where they imagined that Christ would quickly appear to judge the world. But the pilgrims were exposed to outrages of every kind from the infidel Saracens; and, on their return from Palestine, they related the dangers which they had encountered, and described with exaggeration the cruelty and vexations to which they had been subjected.

4. When the minds of men were thus prepared, the zeal of a fanatic monk, who conceived the idea of leading all the forces of Christendom against the infidels, and of driving them out of the Holy Land by violence, was sufficient to give a beginning to that wild enterprise. Peter the Hermit, for that was the name of this martial apostle, ran from province to province with a crucifix in his hand, exciting princes and people to this Holy War; and wherever he came, kindled the same enthusiastic ardour for it, with which he himself was animated. Others likewise engaged in this same enterprise. Some of them went clad in sackcloth, with their heads and feet bare. They flew from kingdom to kingdom with incredible speed, promising to each soldier of the cross, at least, the eternal blessing of heaven, and threatening such as remained inactive with the endless wrath of an offended Deity.

5. Their success was beyond calculation. Persons of all ranks caught the contagion, and enlisted under the banners of the cross. The flame spread, and continued to burn, from the shores of the Baltic to the straits of Gibraltar, and from the banks of the Danube to the bay of Biscay. In all places the martial trumpet was heard,

and warlike preparations were seen. Immense swarms of people thronged from all quarters, to places of general rendezvous, whence, in still larger bodies, they rolled like mighty torrents into Asia. If we may believe the concurring testimony of contemporary writers, six millions of persons actually devoted themselves to this holy warfare; and so completely were the nations of Europe agitated and carried away by this general and powerful passion, that to make, preserve, and recover acquisitions in Judea and its neighbourhood, was the grand and favourite object for two centuries.

6. The first efforts of valour, animated by enthusiasm, were irresistible; part of Lesser Asia, all Syria, and Palestine, were wrested from the infidels; the banner of the cross was displayed on Mount Zion; Constantinople, the capital of the Christian empire, in the East, was afterwards seized by a body of those adventurers, who had taken arms against the Mahometans; and an Earle of Flanders, and his descendants, kept possession of the imperial throne during half a century. But though the first impression of the Crusaders was so unexpected that they made their conquests with great ease, they found infinite difficulty in preserving them. Establishments so distant from Europe, surrounded by warlike nations, animated with fanatical zeal scarcely inferior to that of the Crusaders themselves, were perpetually in danger of being overturned. Before the expiration of the thirteenth century, the Christians were driven out of all their Asiatic possessions, in the acquisition of which, immense sums of money had been expended, and not less than two millions of men had perished.

7. But however vain and extravagant the Crusades were, they were productive of lasting good to mankind. The general union of all Europe in one common cause, although a wild religious phrenzy was at the bottom of it, prevented many wars, hushed many commotions, and caused numberless animosities to be forgotten—the inhabitants of different countries became acquainted with each other; and especially, when they met in the remote regions of Asia, they looked upon each other as brethren engaged in one grand cause, where life,

honour, and glory, were all at stake. The Crusades may in fact be regarded as the commencement of that intercourse among the people of Europe, which has been ever since increasing, and which cannot fail to assimilate and polish their manners.

8. Rude and ignorant as the Crusaders were, they could not travel through and continue in so many interesting countries with indifference; or behold their various customs and institutions, without acquiring information and improvement. Among the Greeks, they surveyed the productions of the fine arts, and the precious remains of antiquity, the magnificence of the eastern courts, and the models of extensive and curious manufactories. In Asia, they beheld the traces of knowledge and arts, which the patronage of the caliphs had diffused through their empire. Every object which struck their attention, pointed out a far higher state of improvement than their own countries had reached; every object, therefore, while it excited the wonder of them all, could not fail to excite a spirit of imitation among those who are active and ingenious. As these new scenes presented themselves, their eyes were gradually opened to a more extensive prospect of the world, and they acquired new modes of thinking, felt a sense of new wants, and a taste for new gratifications.

9. In the superior intelligence and refinements of Cairo and Constantinople, they discovered various commodities worth importing into Europe. From this period is dated the introduction of silk and sugar, which were conveyed into Italy from Greece and Egypt; and the advantages which resulted from a more enlarged and adventurous traffic to the Pisans, the Genoese, and Venetians, who laid the foundation of the modern commercial system. The Crusaders began that intercourse with the East, which under the pacific forms of commerce has continued with little interruption ever since. On their return to Europe, they introduced a new taste in buildings, a more superb display of magnificence on public occasions, the rich manufactures of Asia, together with a more romantic spirit of enterprise, and the first improvements in learning and science.

10. The most beneficial effects of the Crusades were visible in the alteration which they occasioned in the state of property, by the emancipation of vassals from the tyranny of their lords, and by increasing the growing independence of the feudal tenants. Many of the great barons, unable to support the expenses incurred by their expeditions to Palestine, sold their hereditary possessions. The monarchs of different countries took advantage of these opportunities of annexing considerable territories to their dominions, and purchased them at a small expense. The fiefs likewise, of those barons who died in the holy wars without heirs, reverted to their respective sovereigns; and by these possessions being taken from one scale and thrown into the other, the regal power increased in proportion as that of the nobility declined.

QUESTIONS.

1. What were the Crusades?—2. From what did they derive their name?—3. At what time did they commence, and how long did they continue?—4. Why have Christians been in the habit of visiting Judea, or the Holy Land?—5. What circumstance increased the number of pilgrimages to the Holy Land about the close of the 10th and the beginning of the 11th century?—6. What treatment did Christians receive in their pilgrimages?—7. Who actively engaged in exciting Christians, at this time, to avenge the injuries they received?—8. Was Peter successful in enlisting persons to go against the Infidels?—9. How many persons are said to have enlisted in the Crusades?—10. How many persons are said to have lost their lives in them?—11. What contributed to the success of the Crusades in their first expeditions?—12. What prevented their maintaining the advantage which they had thus obtained over the Saracens?—13. Why did the Crusades serve to produce refinement of manners, improvements in the arts, and extension of commerce?—14. How did they tend to produce a better distribution of power, by altering the condition of property?

CHIVALRY,

1. CHIVALRY arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations, the profession of arms was es-

teemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassals, as a symbol of their devotion to his service. In the progress of the feudal system, these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremony.

2. The candidate for this distinction, accompanied by his sponsors and his priests, passed the night previous to his initiation in watching his arms, and in the duty of prayer. The next morning he repaired to the bath, the water of which was intended to serve as an emblem of the purity of his profession. He then walked to the nearest church, clothed in white garments, and presented his sword to the minister officiating at the altar, who returned it to him with his benediction. After taking the accustomed oaths to his sovereign, or feudal chief, he was invested by the attendant knights and ladies with the various parts of his armour. The sovereign then rising from the throne, conferred upon him, while kneeling, the honour of knighthood, by giving him three strokes with the flat part of a drawn sword upon his shoulders or neck. He then saluted the young warrior, and pronounced these words—"In the name of God, of St. Michael, and St. George, I make thee a knight—be brave, bold, and loyal."

3. Chivalry, though considered, commonly, as a wild institution, the effect of caprice, and the source of extravagance, certainly had a very serious influence in refining the manners of European nations. The feudal state was a state of almost perpetual war, rapine, and anarchy; during which, the weak and unarmed were exposed to insults or injuries. The power of the sovereign was too limited to prevent these wrongs, and the administration of justice too feeble to redress them. The most effectual protection against violence and oppression, was often found to be that which the valour and generosity of private persons afforded. The same

spirit of enterprise which had prompted so many gentlemen to take up arms in defence of the oppressed pilgrims in Palestine, incited others to declare themselves the patrons and avengers of injured innocence at home.

4. When, too, the final reduction of the Holy Land under the dominion of infidels put an end to these foreign expeditions, the latter was the only employment left for the activity and courage of adventurers. To check the insolence of overgrown oppressors; to rescue the helpless from captivity; to protect, or to avenge women, orphans, or ecclesiastics, who could not bear arms in their own defence; to redress wrongs, and to remove grievances, were deemed acts of the highest prowess and merit. Valour, humanity, courage, justice, honour, were the characteristic qualities of chivalry; To these was added religion, which mingled itself with every passion and institution during the middle ages, and by infusing a large portion of enthusiastic zeal, gave them such force as carried them to romantic excess.

5. This singular institution, in which valour, gallantry, and religion, were so strangely blended, was wonderfully adapted to the taste and genius of martial nobles; and its effects were soon visible in their manners. War was carried on with less ferocity; when humanity came to be deemed the ornament of knighthood, no less than courage. More gentle and polished manners were introduced, when courtesy was recommended as the most amiable of knightly virtues. Violence and oppression decreased, when it was reckoned meritorious to check and punish them. A scrupulous adherence to truth, with the most religious attention to fulfil every engagement, became the distinguishing characteristic of a gentleman, because chivalry was regarded as the school of honour, and inculcated the most delicate sensibility with regard to these points. The admiration of these qualities, together with the high distinctions and prerogatives conferred on knighthood in every part of Europe, inspired persons of noble birth, on some occasions, with

a species of military fanaticism, and led them to the most extravagant enterprises.

6. But even in these enterprises, they deeply imprinted on their minds the principles of generosity and honour. These principles too were strengthened by every consideration that can affect the senses or touch the heart. The wild exploits of those romantic knights who sallied forth in quest of adventures, are well known, and have been treated with proper ridicule; but it is a fact, that the political and permanent effects of the spirit of chivalry have been less observed. Perhaps the humanity which accompanies all the operations of war, the refinements of gallantry, and the point of honour, the three chief circumstances which distinguish modern from ancient manners, may be ascribed in a great measure to this institution, which has appeared whimsical to superficial observers, but by its effects has proved of great benefit to mankind.

7. The sentiments which chivalry inspired, had a wonderful influence on manners and conduct, during the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries. They were so deeply rooted, that they continued to operate after the vigour and reputation of the institution itself began to decline. Some considerable transactions recorded in history, resemble the adventurous exploits of chivalry, rather than the well regulated operations of sound policy. Some of the most eminent personages whose characters are therein delineated, were strongly tinctured with this romantic spirit. Francis I. was ambitious to distinguish himself by all the qualities of an accomplished knight, and endeavoured to imitate the enterprising genius of chivalry in war, as well as its pomp and courtesy during peace. The fame which the French monarch acquired by these splendid actions, so far dazzled his more temperate rival, that he departed, on some occasions, from his usual prudence and moderation, and emulated Francis in deeds of prowess, or of gallantry.

8. Important and numerous were the privileges attached to this profession of arms, and its duties were at once ardent and indispensable. To protect the ladies

was an essential part of them. Incapable of taking arms for the preservation of their property, and destitute of the means to prove the purity of their characters, if attacked by malevolence or slander, they would frequently, in those uncivilized times, when law and justice were silenced by violence and force, have seen their lands become a prey to some tyrannical neighbour, or had their reputation blasted by the breath of calumny, if some knight had not come forward in their defence. To the succour of the distressed, the protection of orphans, the emancipation of captives, and the chastisement of oppression, he likewise dedicated his sword, and his life. If he failed in a scrupulous attention to these benevolent offices, he was looked upon as deserting the most solemn obligations, and was degraded from his rank with public marks of disgrace. If he performed them with activity and spirit, he was regarded as an honour to his profession, and his renown was spread over every part of Europe.

9. The treatment of women in Greece and Rome was harsh and degrading. They were confined to a state of seclusion from the world, had but few attentions paid them, and were allowed to take little share in the general intercourse of life. The northern nations, on the contrary, paid a kind of religious veneration to the female sex, considered them as endowed with superior, and even divine qualities, gave them a seat in their public councils, and followed their standard to battle. These fierce barbarians, in the course of their ravages in the Roman empire, when they involved the monuments of ancient art in destruction, and pursued their enemies in arms with the most bloody severity, always forbore to offer violence to women. They introduced into the west of Europe the respectful gallantry of the north; and this benevolence of sentiment was cherished and matured by the institution of chivalry.

10. Thus has a great change of manners been effected by following up a leading principle of the institution of chivalry, and giving a conspicuous place to the female sex in the ranks of society. The passion of love, purified by delicacy, has been heightened by the plea-

tures of sentiment and imagination; the sphere of conversation has been enlarged and meliorated; it has gained more propriety, more vivacity, more wit, and more vanity; social intercourse has been divested of formality, and is regulated by the laws of true politeness. It has opened new sources of satisfaction to the understanding, and afforded new delights to the heart. The merit of the sexes has been raised, they having a better title to the esteem of each other; the characters both of men and women have been marked by more amiable qualities, and the stock of refined pleasures and social happiness has been considerably increased.

11. A knight was always known by a device on his shield, and the peculiarities of his blazonry, which were allusive to some of his martial exploits. Great honours were paid to him after his decease, particularly if he was slain in battle. His funeral was most solemn, and fully attended. His sword, helmet, spurs, gauntlets, and armorial ensigns, were suspended over the hallowed spot of his interment, or his cenotaph. His splendid tomb, graced with his effigy, and marked with a suitable inscription, was considered as a tribute of the justest respect to his virtues, and as a powerful incentive to inflame the youthful warrior to tread the same path of valour and renown.

12. The following, among many other anecdotes, have been related, as specimens of the influence of chivalry in those rude ages. Edward, the black prince, was accomplished, valiant, and amiable. Soon after the battle of Poitiers, in 1356, he landed at Southwark, and was met by a great concourse of people, of all ranks and stations. His prisoner, John, king of France, was clad in royal apparel, and mounted on a white steed, distinguished by its size and beauty, and by the richness of its furniture. The conqueror rode by his side, in meaner attire, and carried by a black palfry. In this situation, more honourable than all the insolent parade of a Roman triumph, he passed through the streets of London, and presented the king of France to his father, who received him with the same courtesy, as if he had been a neighbouring potentate that had

voluntarily come to pay him a friendly visit. It is impossible, on reflecting on this noble conduct, not to perceive the advantages which resulted from the otherwise whimsical principles of chivalry, and which gave, even in those rude times, some superiority even over people of a more cultivated age and nation.

13. The chevalier Bayard was quartered, one winter, at Grenoble, near a young lady of good family, but of indigent circumstances; her beauty inflamed his love, and her situation gave him hopes of being able to gratify it. Her mother, urged by poverty, accepted his proposals, and compelled her reluctant daughter to visit him. As soon as she was introduced into his presence, she threw herself at his feet, and with streaming eyes besought him not to dishonour an unfortunate damsel, whom it was more consistent with a person of his virtuous character to protect. "Rise," exclaimed the chevalier, "you shall quit this place as innocent as you entered it, but more fortunate." He instantly conducted her home, reproved the mother, and gave the daughter a marriage portion of 600 pistoles.

QUESTIONS.

1. With what ceremony were persons admitted to knighthood?—2. How has the institution of chivalry commonly been considered?—3. What were the characteristic qualities of chivalry?—4. What effect did chivalry have on war?—5. Has chivalry given rise to great extravagances?—6. Have these extravagances received the ridicule which they justly deserve?—7. Have the advantages of chivalry been as much known as its extravagances?—8. What may be considered the most important duties of chivalry? (See sec. 8.)—9. What was the treatment of women in Greece and Rome?—10. What treatment were they accustomed to receive among the northern nations?—11. How was a knight always to be known?—12. What anecdote is related of Edward the black prince, to illustrate the advantages of chivalry?—13. What one is related of the chevalier Bayard?

THE REFORMATION.

1. It was from causes seemingly fortuitous, and from a source very inconsiderable, that all the mighty effects of the reformation flowed. Leo X. when raised to the papal throne, found the revenues of the church exhausted by the vast projects of his two ambitious predecessors, Alexander VI. and Julius II. His own temper, naturally liberal and enterprising, rendered him incapable of that severe and patient economy which the situation of his finances required. On the contrary, his schemes for aggrandizing the family of Medici, his love of splendour, his taste for pleasure, and his magnificence in rewarding men of genius, involved him daily in new expenses; in order to provide a fund for which, he tried every device, that the fertile invention of priests had fallen on, to drain the credulous multitude of their wealth. Among others, he had recourse to a sale of *Indulgences*.

2. According to the doctrine of the church of Rome, all the good works of the saints, over and above those which are necessary towards their own justification, are deposited, together with the infinite merits of Jesus Christ, in one inexhaustible treasury. The keys of this were committed to St. Peter, and to his successors the popes, who open it at pleasure, and by transferring a portion of this superabundant merit to any particular person, for a sum of money, may convey to him, either the pardon of his own sins, or release for any one in whose happiness he is interested, from the pains of purgatory. Such indulgences were first invented in the eleventh century, by Urban II. as a recompense for those who went in person upon the meritorious enterprise of conquering the Holy Land. They were afterwards granted to those who hired a soldier for that purpose; and, in process of time, were bestowed on such as gave money for accomplishing any pious work, enjoined by the pope. Julius II. had bestowed indulgences on all who contributed towards building the church of St. Peter at Rome; and as Leo was carrying

on that magnificent and expensive fabric, his grant was founded on the same pretence.

B. Tetzél, a Dominican Friar, of licentious morals, but of an active spirit, was the principal person employed in retailing these indulgences in Saxony. He, assisted by the monks of his order, executed the commission with zeal and success, but with little discretion and decency; and though, by magnifying excessively the benefit of their indulgences, and by disposing of them at a very low price, they carried on, for some time, an extensive and lucrative traffic among the credulous and the ignorant; the extravagance of the assertions, as well as the irregularities in their conduct, came at last to give general offence. The princes and nobles were irritated at seeing their vassals drained of so much wealth, in order to replenish the treasury of a profuse pontiff. Men of piety regretted the delusion of the people, who, being taught to rely for the pardon of their sins on the indulgences which they purchased, did not think it incumbent on them either to study the doctrines taught by genuine Christianity, or to practise the duties which it enjoins. Even the most unthinking were shocked at the scandalous behaviour of Tetzél and his associates, who often squandered in drunkenness, gaming, and low debauchery, those sums which were piously bestowed in hopes of obtaining eternal happiness; and all began to wish that some check were given to this commerce, no less detrimental to society than destructive to religion.

4. Such was the favourable juncture, and so disposed were the minds of his countrymen to listen to his discourses, when Martin Luther first began to call in question the efficacy of indulgences, and to declaim against the vicious lives and false doctrines of the persons employed in promulgating them. He soon acquired great reputation, not only for his piety, but for his love of knowledge, and his unwearied application to study. The great progress he made in his study of the Scriptures, augmented so much the fame both of his sanctity and his learning, that Frederic,

elector of Saxony, having founded an university at Wittenberg on the Elbe, the place of his residence, Luther was chosen first to teach philosophy, and afterwards theology there; and discharged both offices in such a manner that he was deemed the chief ornament of that society.

5. And from the pulpit, in the great church at Wittenberg, he inveighed against the irregularities and vices of the monks who published indulgences; he ventured to examine the doctrines which they taught, and pointed out to the people the danger of relying for salvation upon any other means than those appointed by God in his word. The boldness and novelty of these opinions drew great attention, and being recommended by the authority of Luther's personal character, and delivered with a popular and persuasive eloquence, they made a deep impression on the minds of his hearers. Meanwhile, these novelties in Luther's doctrines which interested all Germany, excited little attention and no alarm in the court of Rome. Leo, fond of elegant and refined pleasures, intent upon great schemes of policy, a stranger to theological controversies, and apt to despise them, regarded with the utmost indifference the operations of an obscure friar, who, in the heart of Germany, carried on a scholastic disputation in a barbarous style. Little did he apprehend, or Luther himself dream, that the effects of this quarrel would be so fatal to the papal see.

6. The solicitations, however, of Luther's adversaries, who were exasperated to an high degree by the boldness with which he animadverted on their writings, together with the surprising progress which his opinions made in different parts of Germany, roused at last the attention of the court of Rome, and obliged Leo to take measures for the security of the church against an attack that now appeared too serious to be despised. For this end, he summoned Luther to appear at Rome, within sixty days, before the auditor of the chamber, and the inquisitor-general, Prierias, whom he empowered jointly to examine his doctrines, and to decide concerning them. He wrote, at the same time, to the

elector of Saxony, beseeching him not to protect a man whose heretical and profane tenets were so shocking to pious ears; and enjoined the provincial of the Augustinians to check, by his authority, the rashness of an arrogant monk, which brought disgrace upon the order of St. Augustine, and gave offence and disturbance to the whole church.

7. Nor did this spirit of opposition to the doctrines and usurpations of the Romish church break out in Saxony alone; an attack no less violent, and occasioned by the same cause, was made upon them about this time, in Switzerland. The Franciscans being entrusted with the promulgation of indulgences in that country, executed their commission with the same indiscretion and rapaciousness, which had rendered the Dominicans so odious in Germany. They proceeded, nevertheless, with uninterrupted success, till they arrived at Zurich. There Zuinglius, a man not inferior to Luther himself, in zeal and intrepidity, ventured to oppose them; and being animated with a republican boldness, and free from those restraints which subjection to the will of a prince imposed on a German reformer, he advanced with more daring and rapid steps, to overturn the whole fabric of the established religion. The appearance of such a vigorous auxiliary, and the progress which he made, was, at first, matter of great joy to Luther. On the other hand, the decrees of the universities of Cologne and Louvain, which pronounced his opinions to be erroneous, afforded a great cause of triumph to his adversaries.

8. But the undaunted spirit of Luther acquired additional fortitude from every instance of opposition; and pushing on his inquiries and attacks from one doctrine to another, he began to shake the firmest foundations on which the wealth or power of the church were established. Leo came at last to be convinced, that all hopes of reclaiming him by forbearance were vain; several prelates of great wisdom exclaimed no less than Luther's personal adversaries, against the pope's unprecedented lenity, in permitting an incorrigible heretic, who during three years had been endeavouring to

subvert every thing sacred and venerable, still to remain within the bosom of the church; the dignity of the papal see rendered the most vigorous proceedings necessary; the new emperor, it was hoped, would support its authority; nor did it seem probable, that the elector of Saxony would so far forget his usual caution, as to set himself in opposition to their united power.

9. The college of cardinals was often assembled, in order to prepare the sentence with due deliberation; and the ablest canonists were consulted how it might be expressed with unexceptionable formality. At last, on the 15th of June, 1520, the bull, so fatal to the church of Rome, was issued. Forty-one propositions, extracted out of Luther's works, are therein condemned as heretical, scandalous, and offensive to pious ears; all persons are forbidden to read his writings, upon pain of excommunication; such as had any of them in their custody, are commanded to commit them to the flames; he himself, if he did not, within sixty days, publicly recant his errors, and burn his books, is pronounced an obstinate heretic; is excommunicated, and delivered unto Satan for the destruction of his flesh; and all secular princes are required, under pain of incurring the same censure, to seize his person, that he might be punished as his crimes deserved.

10. This sentence, which he had for some time expected, did not disconcert or intimidate Luther. He boldly declared the pope to be that man of sin, or anti-christ, whose appearance is foretold in the New Testament; he declaimed against his tyranny and usurpations, with greater violence than ever; he exhorted all Christian princes to shake off such an ignominious yoke; and boasted of his own happiness in being marked out as the object of ecclesiastical indignation, because he had ventured to assert the liberty of mankind. Nor did he confine his expressions of contempt for the papal power to words alone; Leo having, in the execution of the bull, appointed Luther's books to be burnt at Rome, he, by way of retaliation, assembled all the professors and students in the university at Wittemberg, and, with

great pomp, in presence of a vast multitude of spectators, cast the volumes of the canon law, together with the bull of excommunication, into the flames; and his example was imitated in several cities in Germany.

11. *Wickliff*, in the middle of the fourteenth century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and still more by a translation of the Scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. Had it not been for the intemperate passions of Henry VIII., the progress of reformation in this country would have been far less rapid. This prince being excommunicated by the pope for having divorced his queen, declared himself head of the church in England. He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their treasures and revenues; erecting, out of the latter, six new bishoprics and a college. Yet Henry, though a reformer, and a pope in his own kingdom, had not yet renounced the religion of Rome—he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin, as to the pope's jurisdiction in England.

12. On the death of Henry VIII., 1549, and the accession of his son Edward VI., the protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the sovereign; but he died at the early age of 15, in 1553; and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary; an intolerant catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the protestants. In her reign, which was of five years' duration, above 300 miserable victims were burnt at the stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary was succeeded in 1558, by her sister Elizabeth, a protestant, the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign, the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

QUESTIONS.

1. What method did Leo X. adopt to replenish his exhausted treasury?—2. When were the *Indulgences* first invented, and by whom?—3. Who was the principal person employed in disposing of Indulgences in Saxony?—4. Who was the particular friend and patron of Martin Luther?—5. Who was a powerful advocate for the Reformation in Switzerland?—6. When was the bull of excommunication passed upon Luther?—7. What did Luther do with this bull of excommunication?—8. Who prepared the minds of the people in England for the Reformation?—9. What did Wickliff do?—10. What caused Henry VIII. to declare himself and the English church independent of the see of Rome?—11. Who succeeded Henry VIII., and when?—12. What effect was produced to the Reformation by the accession of Edward VI.?—13. Who succeeded Edward VI.?—14. What religion did Mary favour?—15. How many persons were burnt in her reign for their religion?—16. Who succeeded Mary, and when?—17. What was the religion of Elizabeth?

THE DUNGEON.

AND this place our forefathers made for man!
 This is the process of our love and wisdom,
 To each poor brother who offends against us—
 Most innocent, perhaps—And what if guilty?
 Is this the only cure? Merciful God!
 Each pore and natural outlet shrivelled up
 By ignorance and parching poverty,
 His energies roll back upon his heart,
 And stagnate and corrupt; till, chang'd to poison,
 They break out on him like a loathsome plague-spot—
 Then we call in our pampered mountebanks—
 And ~~this~~ is their best cure!—uncomforted
 And friendless solitude, groaning and tears,
 And savage faces, at the clanking hour
 Seen through the steams and vapour of his dungeon
 By the lamp's dismal twilight!—So he lies,
 Circled with evil, till his very soul
 Unmoulds its essence, hopelessly deformed
 By fellowship with desperate deformity!

With other ministrations thou, O Nature!
 Healest thy wandering and distemper'd child.
 Thou pourest on him thy soft influences,
 Thy sunny hues, fair forms, and breathing sweets,
 Thy melodies of woods, and winds, and waters,
 Till he relent, and can no more endure
 To be a jarring and discordant thing,
 Amid this general dance and minstrelsy;
 But bursting into tears, wins back his way;
 His angry spirit healed and humanized
 By the benignant touch of love and beauty.

TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE.

1. The principal translation of the Old Testament into the Greek language, is that which is called the Septuagint. This name is derived from the Latin word *septuaginta*, seventy, the version being related to have been made by seventy or seventy-two interpreters. It is recorded that, about the year before Christ 277, Ptolemy Philadelphus, being intent on forming a great library at Alexandria, in Egypt, sent to Eleazer, the high priest of the Jews, to request a copy of the Law of Moses; and, as he was ignorant of the Hebrew tongue, he further desired that some men of sufficient capacity might be sent to translate it into Greek.

2. The messengers who went upon this errand, and carried with them many rich presents for the temple, were received with great honour and respect, both by the high priest and all the people; and having received a copy of the Law of Moses, and six elders having been assigned out of each tribe (seventy-two in all) to translate it, returned to Alexandria. Upon their arrival, the elders betook themselves to the work, and first translated the Pentateuch, afterwards the rest of the Old Testament, into Greek. Whatever may be thought of the truth of this story, it is certain, that the translation called the Septuagint, was held in esteem and veneration almost equal to the original, and was not only used

by the Jews in their dispersion through the Grecian cities, but approved by the great Sanhedrim at Jerusalem, and quoted and referred to by our blessed Saviour and his apostles.

3. The Latin translations of the Bible were in early times extremely numerous, but they were chiefly made from the Septuagint, and not from the original Hebrew, until St. Jerome, who was well versed in the Hebrew language, observing the errors of the many Latin translations, and their frequent disagreement with the original, undertook an entirely new translation, and, with great care and exactness, translated from the Hebrew all the Old Testament except the Psalms. This translation of St. Jerome was not universally received in the church; and at length another, which is composed of this and some former translations, and which is called, by the Romanists, the Ancient Vulgate, came into general use.

4. There were several versions of the Bible into the Saxon tongue; but when the popes of Rome had established their spiritual tyranny, they forbade the reading of these translations; and in the fourteenth century, the common people had been so long deprived of the use of the Scriptures, that the latest of the translations were become unintelligible. (Wickliff,) therefore, who was a strenuous opposer of the corruptions and usurpations of the church of Rome, and from whom we are to date the dawn of the Reformation in Great Britain, published a translation of the whole Bible in the English language; but not being sufficiently acquainted with the Hebrew and Greek languages to translate from the originals, he made his translation from the Latin Bibles, which were at that time read in the churches.

5. So offensive was this translation of the Bible, to those who were for taking away the key of knowledge, and means of better information, that a bill was brought into the house of lords for suppressing it. This bill, however, was rejected; but in the year 1408, in a convocation held at Oxford, it was decreed, by a constitution, "That no one should thereafter translate any text of Holy Scripture into English, by way of a book, or

little book, or tract; and that no book of this kind should be read that was composed lately, in the time of John Wickliff, or since his death." This constitution led the way to great persecution; and many persons were punished severely, and some even with death, for reading the Scriptures in English.

6. During the sixteenth century, as the Reformation advanced, different translations of the Bible were made, the most distinguished of which was undertaken by royal command, and under the direction of archbishop Parker. Distinct portions, fifteen at least, were allotted to as many persons, eminent for their learning and abilities; they all performed the work assigned, and the whole was afterwards revised with great care by other critics. (This translation was published in 1658, with a preface, which was written by the archbishop; and it is generally called the Bishops' Bible, because eight of the persons originally concerned in it were bishops.)

7. In the conference held at Hampton Court, in 1603, before king James the first, between the Episcopalians and Puritans, (Dr. Reynolds,) the speaker of the Puritans, requested his majesty, that a new translation of the Bible might be made, alleging that those which had been made in former reigns were incorrect. Accordingly his majesty formed the resolution of causing a new and more faithful translation to be made, and commissioned for that purpose, fifty-four of the most learned men in the universities and other places.

8. At the same time, he required the bishops to inform themselves of all learned men within their several dioceses, who had acquired especial skill in the Hebrew and Greek tongues, and had taken pains, in their private studies of the Scriptures, for the clearing up of obscurities, either in the Hebrew, or the Greek, or for the correction of any mistakes in the former English translations; and to charge them to communicate their observations to the persons employed, that so, the intended translation might have the help and furtherance of all the principal learned men in the kingdom.

9. Before the work was begun, seven of the persons nominated for it, either were dead, or declined to en-

gage in the task. The remaining forty-seven were ranged under six divisions, and several parcels of the Bible were assigned to them, according to the several places where they were to meet, confer, and consult together. Every one of the company was to translate the whole parcel; then they were each to compare their translations together, and when any company had finished their part, they were to communicate it to the other companies, so that nothing might pass without general consent.

10. If any company, upon a review of the book so sent, doubted or differed upon any place, they were to note the place, and send back the reasons for their disagreement. If they happened to differ about the amendments, the difference was to be referred to a general committee, consisting of the chief persons of each company, at the end of the work. When any passage was found remarkably obscure, letters were to be directed, by authority, to any learned persons in the land, for their judgment thereon.

11. The work was begun in the spring of 1607, and prosecuted with all due care and deliberation. It was about three years before it was finished. Two persons selected from the Cambridge translators, two from those at Oxford, and two from those at Westminster, then met at Stationers' Hall, and read over and corrected the whole. After long expectation, and great desire of the nation, this translation came forth, in the year 1611, the divines employed having taken the greatest pains in conducting the work, not only examining translations with the original, which was absolutely necessary, but also comparing together all the existing translations, in the Italian, Spanish, French, and other languages.

12. This is the translation of the Holy Scriptures now in common use amongst us; and since that time there has been no authorized version of any part of the sacred volume. The excellency of it is such as might be expected, from the judicious care with which it was conducted, and the joint labours of the many distinguished men employed upon it. "It is," says Dr. Gray,

“a most wonderful and incomparable work, equally remarkable for the general fidelity of its construction, and the magnificent simplicity of its language.”

QUESTIONS.

1. Why is the Greek translation of the Old Testament called the Septuagint?—2. What translation is called the Ancient Vulgate?—3. Who made the first translation of the Scriptures into the English language?—4. What one was called the Bishops' Bible?—5. Under whose authority and direction was the translation now in common use made?—6. How many persons were employed in making it?

PATRIOTS AND MARTYRS.

PATRIOTS have toil'd, and in their country's cause
 Bled nobly; and their deeds, as they deserve,
 Receive proud recompense. We give in charge
 Their names to the sweet lyre. Th' historic muse,
 Proud of the treasure, marches with it down
 To latest times; and sculpture, in her turn,
 Gives bond in stone and ever-during brass
 To guard them, and t' immortalize her trust;
 But fairer wreaths are due, though never paid,
 To those, who, posted at the shrine of Truth,
 Have fallen in her defence. A patriot's blood,
 Well spent in such a strife, may earn indeed,
 And for a time ensure, to his lov'd land,
 The sweets of liberty and equal laws;
 But martyrs struggle for a brighter prize,
 And win it with more pain. Their blood is shed
 In confirmation of the noblest claim—
 Our claim to feed upon immortal truth,
 To walk with God, to be divinely free,
 To soar, and to anticipate the skies!
 Yet few remember them. They liv'd unknown,
 Till persecution dragg'd them into fame,
 And chas'd them up to heaven. Their ashes flew
 —No marble tells us whither. With their names
 No bard embalms and sanctifies his song!

And history, so warm on meaner themes,
Is cold on this. She execrates indeed
The tyranny that doom'd them to the fire,
But gives the glorious sufferers little praise.

THE ORDER OF JESUITS.

1. In defending the citadel of Pampeluna, Ignatio Loyola, a Biscayan gentleman, was dangerously wounded. During the progress of a lingering cure, Loyola happened to have no other amusement than what he found in reading the lives of the saints. The effect of this on his mind, naturally enthusiastic, but ambitious and daring, was to inspire him with such a desire of emulating the glory of these fabulous worthies of the Romish church, as led him into the wildest and most extravagant adventures, which terminated at last in instituting the society of Jesuits, the most political and best regulated of all the monastic orders, and from which mankind have derived more advantages and received greater injury, than from any other of those religious fraternities.

2. When men take a view of the rapid progress of this society towards wealth and power; when they contemplate the admirable prudence with which it has been governed; when they attend to the persevering and systematic spirit with which its schemes have been carried on; they are apt to ascribe such a singular institution to the superior wisdom of its founder, and to suppose that he had formed and digested his plan with profound policy. But the Jesuits, as well as the other monastic orders, are indebted for the existence of their order rather to the enthusiasm than to the wisdom of their founder. The wild adventures, and visionary schemes, in which his enthusiasm engaged him, equal any thing in the legends of the Romish saints; but are unworthy of notice in history.

3. Prompted by this fanatical spirit, or incited by the love of power and distinction, from which such pre-

tenders to superior sanctity are not exempt, Loyola was ambitious of becoming the founder of a religious order. The plan which he formed of its constitution and laws, was suggested, as he gave out, and as his followers still teach, by the immediate inspiration of heaven. But notwithstanding this high pretension, his design met at first with violent opposition. The pope, to whom Loyola had applied for the sanction of his authority to confirm the institution, referred his petition to a committee of cardinals. They represented the establishment to be unnecessary as well as dangerous; and Paul refused to grant his approbation of it. At last, Loyola removed all his scruples, by an offer which it was impossible for any pope to resist. (He proposed, that besides the three vows, of poverty, of chastity, and of monastic obedience, which are common to all the orders of regulars, the members of this society should take a fourth vow, of obedience to the pope, binding themselves to go whithersoever he should command, for the service of religion, and without requiring any thing from the holy see for their support.)

4. At a time when the papal authority had received such a shock, by the revolt of many nations from the Romish church; at a time when every part of the popish system was attacked with so much violence and success, the acquisition of a body of men thus peculiarly devoted to the see of Rome, and whom it might set in opposition to all its enemies, was an object of the highest consequence. Paul, instantly perceiving this, confirmed the institution of the Jesuits, by his bull; granted the most ample privileges to the members of the society; and appointed Loyola to be the first general of the order. The event has fully justified Paul's discernment, in expecting such beneficial consequences to the see of Rome from this institution. In less than half a century, the society obtained establishments in every country that adhered to the Roman catholic church—its power and wealth increased amazingly; the number of its members became great; their character, as well as their accomplishments, were still greater; and the

Jesuits were celebrated by the friends, and dreaded by the enemies of the Romish faith, as the most able and enterprising order in the church.

5. The primary object of almost all the monastic orders, (is to separate men from the world, and from any concern in its affairs.) In the solitude and silence of the cloister, the monk is called to work out his own salvation, by extraordinary acts of mortification and piety. He is dead to the world, and ought not to mingle in its transactions. He can be of no benefit to mankind, but by his example, and by his prayers. On the contrary, the Jesuits are taught to consider themselves as formed for action. They are chosen soldiers, bound to exert themselves continually in the service of God, and of the pope, his vicar on earth. Whatever tends to instruct the ignorant, whatever can be of use to reclaim, or to oppose, the enemies of the holy see, is their proper object. That they may have full leisure for this active service, they are totally exempted from those functions, the performance of which is the chief business of other monks. They appear in no processions; they practise no rigorous austerities; they do not consume one half of their time in the repetition of tedious offices. But they are required to attend to all the transactions of the world, on account of the influence which these may have upon religion; they are directed to study the disposition of persons in high rank, and to cultivate their friendship; and by the very constitution, as well as genius of the order, a spirit of action and intrigue is infused into all its members.

6. As the object of the society of Jesuits differed from that of the other monastic orders, the diversity was no less in the form of its government. The other orders are to be considered as voluntary associations, in which whatever affects the whole body, is regulated by the common suffrage of all its members. The executive power is vested in the persons placed at the head of each convent, or of the whole society; the legislative authority resides in the community. Affairs of moment, relating to particular convents, are determined in conventual chapters; such as respect the whole order,

are considered in general congregations. But Loyola, full of the ideas of implicit obedience, which he had derived from his military profession, appointed, that the government of his order should be purely monarchical.) A general chosen for life, by deputies from the several provinces, possessed power that was supreme and independent, extending to every person, and to every case.

7. This general, by his sole authority, nominated provincials, rectors, and every other officer employed in the government of the society, and could remove them at pleasure. In him was vested the sovereign administration of the revenues and funds of the order. Every member belonging to it was at his disposal; and, by his uncontrollable mandate, he could impose on them any task, or employ them in what service soever he pleased. To his commands they were required not only to yield outward obedience, but to resign up to him the inclinations of their own wills, and the sentiments of their own understandings. They were to listen to his injunctions, as if they had been uttered by Christ himself. Under his direction, they were to be mere passive instruments, like clay in the hands of the potter, or like dead carcases, incapable of resistance. Such a singular form of policy could not fail to impress its character on all the members of the order, and to give a peculiar force to all its operations. There is not, in the annals of mankind, any example of such a perfect despotism, exercised, not over monks, shut up in the cells of a convent, but over men dispersed among all the nations of the earth.

8. As it was the professed intention of the order of Jesuits to labour with unwearied zeal in promoting the salvation of men, this engaged them, of course, in many active functions. From their first institution, they considered the education of youth as their peculiar province; they aimed at being spiritual guides and confessors; they preached frequently in order to instruct the people; they set out as missionaries to convert unbelieving nations. The novelty of the institution, as well as the singularity of its objects, procured

the order many admirers and patrons. The governors of the society had the address to avail themselves of every circumstance in its favour, and in a short time the number as well as the influence of its members increased wonderfully.

9. Even before the expiration of the sixteenth century, the Jesuits had obtained the chief direction of the education of youth in every Catholic country in Europe. They had become the confessors of almost all its monarchs, a function of no small importance in any reign; but under a weak prince, superior even to that of minister. They were the spiritual guides of almost every person eminent for rank or power. They possessed the highest degree of confidence and interest with the papal court, as the most able and zealous champions for its authority. The advantages which an active and enterprising body of men might derive from all these circumstances, are obvious. They formed the minds of men in their youth. They retained an ascendant over them in their advanced years. They possessed, at different periods, the direction of the most considerable courts in Europe. They mingled in all affairs. They took part in every intrigue and revolution. The general, by means of the extensive intelligence which he received, could regulate the operations of the order with the most perfect discernment; and by means of his absolute power, could carry them on with the utmost vigour and effect.

10. Together with the power of the order, its wealth continued to increase. Various expedients were devised for eluding the obligation of the vow of poverty. The order acquired ample possessions in every Catholic country; and by the number as well as magnificence of its public buildings, together with the value of its property, moveable or real, it vied with the most opulent of the monastic fraternities. Besides the sources of wealth common to all the regular clergy, the Jesuits possessed one which was peculiar to themselves. Under pretext of promoting the success of their missions, and of facilitating the support of their missionaries, they obtained a special license from the court of Rome, to

trade with the nations which they laboured to convert. In consequence of this, they engaged in an extensive and lucrative commerce, both in the East and West Indies. They opened ware-houses in different parts of Europe, in which they vended their commodities. Not satisfied with trade alone, they imitated the example of other commercial societies, and aimed at obtaining settlements. - They acquired possession accordingly, of a large and fertile province in the southern continent of America, and reigned as sovereigns over some hundred thousand subjects.

11. Unhappily for mankind, the vast influence which the order of Jesuits acquired by all these different means, has been often exerted with the most pernicious effect. Such was the tendency of that discipline observed by the society in its members, and such the fundamental maxims in its constitution, that every Jesuit was taught to regard the interest of the order as the capital object, to which every consideration was to be sacrificed. This spirit of attachment to their order, the most ardent, perhaps, that ever influenced any body of men, is the characteristic principle of the Jesuits, and serves as a key to the genius of their policy, as well as to the peculiarities in their sentiments and conduct.

12. As it was for the honour and advantage of the society, that its members should possess an ascendant over persons in high rank, or of great power, the desire of acquiring and preserving such a direction of their conduct, with greater facility, has led the Jesuits to propagate a system of relaxed and pliant morality, which accommodates itself to the passions of men, which justifies their vices, which tolerates their imperfections, which authorises almost every action that the most audacious or crafty politician would wish to perpetuate. As the prosperity of the order was intimately connected with the preservation of the papal authority, the Jesuits, influenced by the same principle of attachment to the interests of their society, have been the most zealous patrons of those doctrines, which tend to exalt ecclesiastical power on the ruins of civil govern-

ment. They have attributed to the court of Rome a jurisdiction as extensive and absolute as was claimed by the most presumptuous pontiffs in the dark ages. They have contended for the entire independence of ecclesiastics on the civil magistrate. They have published such tenets concerning the duty of opposing princes who were enemies of the Catholic faith, as countenanced the most atrocious crimes, and tended to dissolve all the ties which connect subjects with their rulers.

13. As the order derived both reputation and authority, from the zeal with which it stood forth in defence of the Romish church against the attacks of the reformers, its members, proud of this distinction, have considered it as their peculiar function, to combat the opinions and check the progress of the Protestants. They have made use of every art, and have employed every weapon against them. They have set themselves in opposition to every gentle or tolerating measure in their favour. They have incessantly stirred up against them all the rage of ecclesiastical and civil persecution. Monks of other denominations have, indeed, ventured to teach the same pernicious doctrines, and have held opinions equally inconsistent with the order and happiness of civil society. But they, from reasons which are obvious, have either delivered such opinions with greater reserve, or have propagated them with less success. Whoever recollects the events which have happened in Europe, during two centuries, will find that the Jesuits may justly be considered as responsible for most of the pernicious effects arising from that corrupt and dangerous casuistry, from those extravagant tenets concerning ecclesiastical power, and from that intolerant spirit, which have been the disgrace of the church of Rome throughout that period, and which have brought so many calamities upon civil society.

14. But amidst many bad consequences flowing from the institution of this order, mankind, it must be acknowledged, have derived from it some considerable advantages. As the Jesuits made the education of youth one of their capital objects, and as their first

attempts to establish colleges for the reception of students were violently opposed by the universities in different countries, it became necessary for them, as the most effectual method of acquiring the public favour, to surpass their rivals in science and industry. This prompted them to cultivate the study of ancient literature, with extraordinary ardour. This put them upon various methods for facilitating the instruction of youth; and by the improvements which they made in it, they have contributed so much towards the progress of polite learning, that on this account they have merited well of society. Nor has the order of Jesuits been successful only in teaching the elements of literature; it has produced likewise eminent masters in many branches of science; and can alone boast of a greater number of ingenious authors, than all the other religious fraternity taken together.)

15. But it is in the new world, that the Jesuits have exhibited the most wonderful display of their abilities, and have contributed most effectually to the benefit of the human species. The conquerors of that unfortunate quarter of the globe acted at first as if they had nothing in view, but to plunder, to enslave, and to exterminate its inhabitants. The Jesuits alone made humanity the object of their settling there. About the beginning of the last century, they obtained admission into the fertile province of Paraguay, which stretches across the southern continent of America, from the east side of the immense ridge of the Andes, to the confines of the Spanish and Portuguese settlements on the banks of the river de la Plata. They found the inhabitants in a state little different from that which takes place among men when they first begin to unite together; strangers to the arts; subsisting precariously by hunting or fishing; and hardly acquainted with the first principles of subordination and government.

16. The Jesuits set themselves to instruct and to civilize these savages. They taught them to cultivate the ground, to rear tame animals, and to build houses. They brought them to live together in villages. They trained them to arts and manufactures. They made

them taste the sweets of society; and accustomed them to the blessings of security and order. These people became the subjects of their benefactors, who have governed them with a tender attention, resembling that with which a father directs his children. Respected and beloved almost to adoration, a few Jesuits presided over some hundred thousand Indians. They maintained a perfect equality among all the members of the community. Each of them was obliged to labour not for himself alone, but for the public.

17. The produce of their fields, together with the fruits of their industry of every species, were deposited in common store-houses, from which each individual received every thing necessary for the supply of his wants. By this institution, almost all the passions which disturb the peace of society, and render the members of it unhappy, were extinguished. A few magistrates, chosen from among their countrymen, by the Indians themselves, watched over the public tranquillity, and secured obedience to the laws. The sanguinary punishments frequent under other governments were unknown. An admonition from a Jesuit; a slight mark of infamy; or, on some singular occasion, a few lashes from a whip, were sufficient to maintain good order among these innocent and happy people.

18. But even in this meritorious effort of the Jesuits for the good of mankind, the genius and spirit of their order have mingled and are discernible. They plainly aimed at establishing in Paraguay an independent empire, subject to the society alone, and which, by the superior excellence of its constitution and police, could scarcely have failed to extend its dominion over all the southern continent of America. With this view, in order to prevent the Spaniards or Portuguese in the adjacent settlements, from acquiring any dangerous influence over the people within the limits of the province subject to the society, the Jesuits endeavoured to inspire the Indians with hatred and contempt of these nations. They cut off all intercourse between their subjects and the Spanish and Portuguese settlements. They prohibited any private trader of either nation to

enter their territories. When they were obliged to admit any person in a public character from the neighbouring governments, they did not permit him to have any conversation with their subjects, and no Indian was allowed even to enter the house where these strangers resided, unless in the presence of a Jesuit.

19. In order to render any communication between them as difficult as possible, they industriously avoided giving the Indians any knowledge of the Spanish or of any other European language; but encouraged the different tribes, which they had civilized, to acquire a certain dialect of the Indian tongue, and laboured to make that the universal language throughout their dominions. As all these precautions, without a military force, would have been insufficient to have rendered their empire secure and permanent, they instructed their subjects in the European arts of war. They formed them into bodies of cavalry and infantry, completely armed and regularly disciplined. They provided a great train of artillery, as well as magazines stored with all the implements of war. Thus they established an army so numerous and well appointed, as to be formidable in a country, where a few sickly and ill-disciplined battalions composed all the military force kept on foot by the Spaniards or Portuguese.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who was the founder of the order of Jesuits?—2. Under what circumstances was he led to the establishment of it?—3. Are the Jesuits indebted to the superior wisdom, or to the enthusiasm, of Loyola?—4. On what conditions did the pope consent to the establishment of the order of Jesuits?—5. What is the primary object of most of the monastic orders?—6. What was the government of the order of Jesuits?—7. Under what pretext did the Jesuits obtain special license for commerce with the nations in which they resided?—8. What was the morality of the Jesuits?—9. What course did the Jesuits take in regard to the Reformation?—10. What were some of the principal benefits of the order of Jesuits?—11. What was their object in settling in South America?—12. How did the genius of the order of Jesuits discover itself in their settlements in South America?

MARTYRS OF ARMORIAN.

1. In the reign of Theophilus, the Saracens ravaged many parts of the eastern empire, gained considerable advantages over the Christians, and at length laid siege to the city of Armorian, in Upper Phrygia. The garrison bravely defended the place for a considerable time, and would have obliged their enemies to raise the siege, but the place was betrayed by a renegado. Many were put to the sword; and two general officers, with some persons of distinction, were carried prisoners to Bagdat, where they were loaded with chains; and thrown into a dungeon. They continued in prison for some time, without seeing any persons but their gaolers, or having scarcely food enough for their subsistence.

2. At length they were informed, that nothing could preserve their lives, but renouncing their religion, and embracing Mahometanism. To induce them to comply, the caliph pretended zeal for their welfare; and declared, that he looked upon converts in a more glorious light than conquests. Agreeably to these maxims, he sent some of the most artful of the Mahometans, with money and clothes, and the promise of other advantages, which they might secure to themselves by an abjuration of Christianity; which, according to the casuistry of those infidels, might be made without quitting their faith; but the martyrs rejected the proposal with horror and contempt.

3. After this, they were attacked with that fallacious and delusive argument, which the Mahometans still use in favour of themselves, and were desired to judge of the merits of the cause by the success of those that were engaged in it, and choose that religion which they saw flourished most, and was best rewarded with the good things of this life, which they called the blessings of heaven. Yet the noble prisoners were proof against all these temptations; and argued strenuously against the authority of their false prophet. This incensed the Mahometans, and drew greater hardships upon the Christians during their confinement, which lasted seven years.

4. Boidizius, the renegado who had betrayed Armorian, then brought them the welcome news that their sufferings would conclude in martyrdom the next day; when taken from their dungeon, they were again solicited to embrace the tenets of Mahomet; but neither threats nor promises could induce them to espouse the doctrines of an impostor. Perceiving that their faith could not by any means be shaken, the caliph ordered them to be executed. Theodore, one of the number, had formerly received priests' orders, and officiated as a clergyman, but afterwards quitting the church, he had followed a military life, and raised himself by the sword to some considerable posts, which he enjoyed at the time he was taken prisoner.

5. The officer who attended the execution, being apprised of these circumstances, said to Theodore, "You might, indeed, pretend to be ranked among the Christians, while you served in their church as a priest; but the profession you have taken up, which engages you in bloodshed, is so contrary to your former employment, that you should not now think of passing upon us for one of that religion. When you quitted the altar for the camp, you renounced Jesus Christ. Why then will you dissemble any longer? Would you not act more conformable to your own principles, and make your conduct all of a piece, if you came to a resolution of saving your life by owning our great prophet?"

6. Theodore, covered with religious confusion at this reproach, but still unshaken in his faith, made the following answer—"It is true," says he, "I did in some measure abandon my God when I engaged in the army, and scarce deserve the name of a Christian. But the Almighty has given me grace to see myself in the true light, and made me sensible of my fault; and I hope he will be pleased to accept my life as the only sacrifice I can now offer to expiate my guilt."

7. This pious answer confounded the officer, who only answered, that he should presently have an opportunity of giving that proof of his fidelity to his Master. Upon which Theodore and the rest, forty-two in number, were beheaded. Two ladies of distinction, Mary

and Flora, suffered martyrdom at the same time.) Flora was the daughter of an eminent Mahometan at Seville ; from whence he removed to Corduba, where the Saracen king resided, and kept his court. Her father dying when she was young, Flora was left to the care of her mother, who being a Christian, brought her up in the true faith, and inspired her with sentiments of virtue and religion.

8. Her brother being a professed enemy to Christianity, and of a barbarous and savage temper, Flora was for some time obliged to use great caution in the practice of such virtues as must have exposed her to a persecution. She was too zealous to bear this restraint long ; for which reason she left Corduba, in company with her sister. Her departure soon alarmed her brother, who suspected her motives, and, in revenge, informed against several Christians of Corduba ; for as he did not know whither his sister was gone, he determined to wreak his vengeance on such Christians as were present.

9. When Flora was informed of these proceedings, she considered herself as the cause of what the Christians had suffered at Corduba, and having an interior conviction that God called her to fight for her faith, she returned to that city, and proceeded to the persecutors, among whom she found her brother. "If," said our glorious martyr, "I am the object of your inquiry ; if the servants of God are tormented on my account, I now freely offer myself to your disposal. I declare that I believe in Jesus Christ, glory in his cross, and profess the doctrine which he taught." None of the company seemed so much enraged at this declaration as her brother, who, after some threats, struck her ; but afterwards endeavoured to gain her by expressions of pretended kindness.

10. Finding her insensible to all he could say, he then informed against her. He insinuated that Flora had been educated in the religion of Mahomet, but had renounced it at the suggestion of some Christians, who inspired her with the utmost contempt for the great prophet. When she was called on to answer to the

charge, she declared she had never owned Mahomet, but sucked the Christian religion in with her milk, and was entirely devoted to the Redeemer of mankind. The magistrate, finding her resolute, delivered her to her brother, and gave him orders to use his utmost endeavours to make her a Mahometan. She, however, soon found an opportunity of escaping over a wall in the night, and of secreting herself in the house of a Christian. She then withdrew to Tucci, a village of Andalusia, where she met her sister, and they never separated again till her martyrdom.

QUESTIONS.

1. By whom was Armorian besieged and taken?—2. To what city were the prisoners carried captives?—3. To what profession had Theodore been educated?—4. What reason did the officer assign for Theodore's renouncing Christianity?—5. How many suffered martyrdom with Theodore?

MORNING HYMN.

1. THESE are thy glorious works, Parent of good,
 Almighty ; thine this universal frame,
 Thus wondrous fair ; Thyself how wondrous then !
 Unspeakable, who sitt'st above these heav'ns,
 To us invisible, or dimly seen
 In these, thy lowest works ; yet these declare
 Thy goodness beyond thought, and pow'r divine.
 Speak, ye who best can tell, ye sons of light,
 Angels, for ye behold him, and with songs
 And choral symphonies, day without night,
 Circle his throne rejoicing ; ye in heaven,
 On earth, join all ye creatures to extol
 Him first, Him last, Him midst, and without end.
 Fairest of stars, last in the train of night,
 If better thou belong not to the dawn,
 Sure pledge of day, that crown'st the smiling morn
 With thy bright circlet, praise Him in thy sphere,
 While day arises, that sweet hour of prime.

2. Thou sun, of this great world both eye and soul,
Acknowledge him thy greater, sound his praise
In thy eternal course, both when thou climb'st,
And when high noon hast gain'd, and when thou fall'st.
Moon, that now meet'st the orient sun, now fly'st,
With the fix'd stars, fix'd in their orb that flies,
And ye five other wand'ring fires, that move
In mystic dance, not without song resound
His praise, who out of darkness call'd up light.
Air, and ye elements, the eldest birth
Of nature's womb, that in quaternion run
Perpetual circle, multiform, and mix,
And nourish all things, let your ceaseless change
Vary to our great Maker still new praise.
Ye mists and exhalations, that now rise
From hill or streaming lake, dusky or grey,
Till the sun paint your fleecy skirts with gold,
In honour to the world's great Author rise,
Whether to deck with clouds th' uncolour'd sky,
Or wet the thirsty earth with falling showers,
Rising or falling, still advance his praise.

3. His praise, ye winds, that from four quarters blow,
Breathe soft or loud; and wave your tops, ye pines,
With every plant, in sign of worship wave.
Fountains, and ye that warble as ye flow,
Melodious murmurs, warbling tune his praise.
Join voices all, ye living souls; ye birds,
That singing up to heaven's gate ascend,
Bear on your wings, and in your notes, his praise.
Ye that in waters glide, and ye that walk
The earth, and stately tread, or lowly creep,
Witness, if I be silent, morn or even,
To hill or valley, fountain, or fresh shade,
Made vocal by my song, and taught his praise.
Hail, universal Lord! be bounteous still,
To give us only good; and, if the night
Have gather'd aught of evil, or conceal'd,
Disperse it, as now light dispels the dark.

SIEGE OF CALAIS.

1. EDWARD III. after the battle of Cressy, in the year 1347, laid siege to Calais. He had fortified his camp in so impregnable a manner, that all the efforts of France proved ineffectual to raise the siege, or throw succours into the city. The citizens, under count Vienne, their gallant governor, made an admirable defence. France had now put the sickle into her second harvest, since Edward, with his victorious army, sat down before the town. The eyes of all Europe were intent on the issue. At length famine did more for Edward than arms. After suffering unheard of calamities, they resolved to attempt the enemy's camp. They boldly sallied forth; the English joined battle; and after a long and desperate engagement, count Vienne was taken prisoner, and the citizens who survived the slaughter retired within their gates. The command devolving upon Eustace St. Pierre, a man of mean birth, but of exalted virtue, he offered to capitulate with Edward, provided he permitted him to depart with life and liberty.

2. Edward, to avoid the imputation of cruelty, consented to spare the bulk of the plebeians, provided they delivered up to him six of their principal citizens, with halters about their necks, as victims of due atonement for that spirit of rebellion with which they had inflamed the vulgar. When his messenger, Sir Walter Mauny, delivered the terms, consternation and pale dismay were impressed on every countenance. To a long and dead silence, deep sighs and groans succeeded, till Eustace St. Pierre, getting up to a little eminence, thus addressed the assembly—"My friends, we are brought to great straits this day. We must either yield to the terms of our cruel and unsparing conqueror, or give up our tender infants, our wives and daughters, to the bloody and brutal lusts of the violating soldiers. Is there any expedient left, whereby we may avoid the guilt and infamy of delivering up those who have suffered every misery with you, on the one hand—or the desolation and horror of a sacked city on the other?

There is, my friends, there is one expedient left—a gracious, an excellent, a godlike expedient! Is there any here to whom virtue is dearer than life?—Let him offer himself an oblation for the safety of his people! He shall not fall of a blessed approbation from that Power, who offered up his only Son for the salvation of mankind!”

3. He spoke—but an universal silence ensued. Each man looked around for the example of that magnanimity and virtue, which all wished to approve in themselves, though they wanted the resolution. At length, St. Pierre resumed—“I doubt not but there are many here, as ready, nay, more zealous of this martyrdom, than I can be; though the station to which I am raised, by the captivity of lord Vienne, imparts a right to be the first in giving my life for your sakes. I give it freely—I give it cheerfully. Who comes next?”—Five others, equally patriotic, soon followed his example. These six self-devoted victims then went out of the town bare-footed, with halters about their necks, and presented the keys to Sir Walter. He took the prisoners into his custody; then ordered the gates to be opened, and gave charge to his attendants to conduct the remaining citizens, with their families, through the camp of the English.

4. Before they departed, however, they desired permission to take their last adieu of their deliverers.—What a parting! What a scene! They crowded, with their wives and children, about St. Pierre and his fellow prisoners. They embraced—they clung around—they fell prostrate before them. They groaned, they wept aloud—and the joint clamour of their mourning passed the gates of the city, and was heard throughout the English camp. The English, by this time, were apprised of what passed within Calais. They heard the voice of lamentation, and their souls were touched with compassion. Each of the soldiers prepared a portion of his own victuals, to welcome and entertain the half famished inhabitants; and they loaded them with as much as their present weakness was able to bear, in order to supply them with sustenance by the way. At

length St. Pierre and his fellow victims appeared under the conduct of Sir Walter and a guard. All the tents of the English were instantly emptied. The soldiers poured from all parts, and arranged themselves on each side, to behold, to contemplate, to admire this little band of patriots as they passed. They bowed down to them on all sides. They murmured their applause of that virtue, which they could not but revere, even in enemies; and they regarded those ropes which they had voluntarily assumed about their necks, as ensigns of greater dignity than that of the British garter.

5. As soon as they reached his presence, "Mauny," says the monarch, "are these the principal inhabitants of Calais?"—"They are," says Mauny—"they are not only the principal men of Calais—they are the principal men of France, my lord, if virtue has any share in the act of ennobling." "Were they delivered peaceably?" says Edward. "Was there no resistance, no commotion among the people?" "Not in the least, my lord; the people would all have perished, rather than have delivered the least of these to your majesty. They are self-delivered, self-devoted; and come to offer up their inestimable heads, as an ample equivalent for the ransom of thousands." Edward was secretly piqued at this reply of Sir Walter. But he knew the privilege of a British subject, and suppressed his resentment. "Experience," says he, "has ever shown, that lenity only serves to invite people to new crimes. Severity, at times, is indispensably necessary, to compel subjects to submission, by punishment and example. Go," he cried to an officer, "lead these men to execution."

6. At this instant a sound of triumph was heard throughout the camp. The queen had just arrived with a powerful reinforcement of gallant troops. Sir Walter Mauny flew to receive her majesty, and briefly informed her of the particulars respecting the six victims. As soon as she had been welcomed by Edward and his court, she desired a private audience. "My lord," said she, "the question I am to enter upon, is not touching the lives of a few mechanics—it respects the honour of

the English nation ; it respects the glory of my Edward, my husband, my king. You think you have sentenced six of your enemies to death. No, my lord, they have sentenced themselves ; and their execution would be the execution of their own orders, not the orders of Edward. The stage on which they would suffer, would be to them a stage of honour, but a stage of shame to Edward ; a reproach on his conquests ; an indelible disgrace to his name. Let us rather disappoint these haughty burghers, who wish to invest themselves with glory at our expense. We cannot wholly deprive them of the merit of a sacrifice so nobly intended, but we may cut them short of their desires ; in the place of that death by which their glory would be consummate, let us bury them under gifts, let us put them to confusion with applauses. We shall thereby defeat them of that popular opinion, which never fails to attend those who suffer in the cause of virtue."

"I am convinced ; you have prevailed ; be it so ;" replied Edward. "Prevent the execution ; have them instantly before us." They came ; when the queen, with an aspect and accents diffusing sweetness, thus bespoke them—"Natives of France, and inhabitants of Calais, you have put us to vast expense of blood and treasure in the recovery of our just and natural inheritance ; but you have acted up to the best of an erroneous judgment ; and we admire and honour in you that valour and virtue, by which we are so long kept out of our rightful possessions. We loose your chains ; we snatch you from the scaffold. You are now free to depart to your kinsfolk, your countrymen, to all whose lives and liberties you have so nobly redeemed, provided, you refuse not the tokens of our esteem. Yet we would rather bind you to ourselves by every endearing obligation ; and for this purpose, we offer to you your choice of the gifts and honours that Edward has to bestow. Rivals for fame, but always friends to virtue, we wish that England were entitled to call you her sons."—"Ah, my country !" exclaimed St. Pierre ; "it is now that I tremble for you. Edward only wins our cities—but Philippa conquers hearts."

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Edward III. besiege Calais?—2. Under whose command was the town defended?—3. On whom did it devolve, when Vienne was taken prisoner?—4. On what condition did Edward consent to raise the siege?—5. Who first offered himself a sacrifice to save his fellow citizens?—6. Through whose influence were the six prisoners spared?

UNCERTAINTY OF THE WORLD.

1. SELF-FLATTER'D, unexperienc'd, high in hope,
When *young*, with sanguine cheer, and streamers gay,
We cut our cable, launch into the world,
And fondly dream each wind and star our friend;
All, in some darling enterprise embark'd—
And where is he, can fathom its extent?
Amid a multitude of artless hands,
Ruin's sure perquisite! her lawful prize!
Some steer aright; but the black blast blows hard,
And puffs them wide of hope—with hearts of proof,
Full against wind and tide, *some* win their way;
And when strong effort has deserv'd the port,
And tugg'd it into view, 'tis won! 'tis lost!
Though strong their oar, still stronger is their fate—
They strike; and while they triumph, they expire.

2. In stress of weather *most*; *some* sink outright;
O'er them, and o'er their names, the billows close;
To-morrow knows not that they e'er were born.
Others, a short memorial leave behind,
Like a flag floating, when the bark's ingulph'd;
It floats a moment, and is seen no more—
One Cæsar lives; a thousand are forgot.
How few, beneath auspicious planets born,
(Darlings of Providence! fond fate's elect!)
With swelling sails make good the promis'd port,
With all their wishes freighted!—Yet e'en these,
Freighted with all their wishes, soon complain;
Free from misfortune, not from nature free,
They still are men; and when is man secure?

As fatal *time*, as *storm* ! the rush of years
 Beats down their strength ; their numberless escapes
 In ruin end—And, now, their proud success
 But plants *new* terrors on the victor's brow—
 What pain to quit the world, just made their own,
 Their nest so deeply down'd, and built so high !
 Too low they build, who build beneath the stars.

MASSACRE OF SWEDISH NOBILITY.

1. CHRISTIAN II, (the Nero of the north,) entering into an insidious negotiation with the Swedes, offered to go in person to Stockholm, in order to confer with the regent, provided that six persons, whom he should name, were delivered as hostages for his safety. This proposal being accepted, Gustavus Vasa (a descendant of the ancient kings of Sweden) with five others of the principal nobility, were sent on board the Danish fleet. The perfidious Christian immediately carried them prisoners to Denmark, and returning the following year, with a more powerful armament, invaded Gothland, and wasted the country with fire and sword. The regent of Sweden being killed in an ambuscade, and the senate divided on the choice of a successor, the Danish king, taking advantage of their dissensions, advanced to Stockholm, which surrendered at his approach. Gustavus Trolle, the primate, now placed the crown of Sweden on the head of the Danish monarch.

2. This coronation was followed by one of the most horrid transactions recorded in history. Christian had promised a general amnesty ; and, repairing to the cathedral, swore on the altar of the Supreme Being, that he would govern Sweden, not with the severity of a conqueror, but the benevolence of a father. After this ceremony, he invited the senators and grandees to a sumptuous entertainment, that lasted three days, but concluded in the most tragical manner. The king and the primate had formed the horrid design of extirpating the Swedish nobility ; and, in order to afford some pre-

text for their intended massacre, the archbishop, on the last day of the feast, reminded the king, that the amnesty accorded to crimes against the state, did not include those committed against the church, and demanded justice in the name of the pope. The hall was immediately filled with soldiers, who secured the guests. The primate proceeded against them as heretics. A scaffold was erected before the gate of the palace, and (ninety-four persons) of the first distinction, among whom was Erick, the father of Gustavus Vasa, were executed, for no other crime than that of defending their country.)

3. This nefarious transaction took place in the year 1520, which was soon followed by the deliverance of Sweden from Danish oppression. Promises and threats were made use of, to reconcile Gustavus Vasa to the despotic authority of Christian, but in vain; and the king, dreading his valor and constancy, gave orders to strangle him in prison. But Eric Banner, a Danish nobleman, who was charged with that detestable commission, instead of executing it, obtained its revocation; and held forth the hope, that he should be able to inspire the youth with a favourable disposition to the government of Christian. He was, therefore, allowed to take him into custody, on condition of his keeping him a prisoner in the fortress of Calo, in Jutland, and paying six thousand crowns, if he should make his escape.

4. The noble qualities of Gustavus gained the esteem of Banner and of the whole family, and he was not long at Calo before he received permission to walk about and hunt for his diversion. New recreations and amusements were every day proposed, and all the neighbouring country endeavoured to entertain the stranger. But nothing could make him forget that he was a prisoner; nor could all the civilities he received compensate the chagrin he experienced at being deprived of his liberty. Restraint, however, became more painful, and the desire of escape more powerful, from the moment he received information of the massacre at Stockholm, in which his father and most of his relatives had been involved.

5. Convinced that every expedient ought to be attempted for procuring his liberty, which might be the means of rescuing his country from destruction, Gustavus mounted his horse according to custom, under pretence of going to the chase, plunged deep into the forest, and, having arrived at a proper distance, assumed the garb of a peasant. Having quitted his horse, after a march of two days through almost impracticable paths, and over mountains, he arrived at Flensburg, the last town on the Danish frontier, into which no person was admitted without a passport. Fortunately, however, at that season of the year, the merchants of Lower Saxony carried on a considerable trade in cattle, which they purchased in Jutland. Gustavus hired himself to one of those merchants, and presenting himself to the governor as a dealer, was suffered to pass unmolested to Lubec.

6. Banner was no sooner informed of the escape of his prisoner, than following him with the greatest diligence, he overtook him at Lubec, and reproached him with a breach of confidence. Gustavus pleaded the existing circumstances as an apology, appeased his late host by promising to indemnify him in the loss of his ransom, and without delay, departed for Sweden, though he knew that orders had been every where given in that kingdom to seize and arrest him. The first town where he made himself known was Calmar, which had belonged to the late regent, whose widow still lived in it with her children, and a German garrison. Those mercenary soldiers only held the place for their own purposes, and were actually in treaty with the emissaries of Christian to deliver up the city. Gustavus assailed them with arguments, and told them that at the hazard of his life he had made his escape to Calmar, in order to have the glory of participating with them in the difficulties and dangers of resisting a tyrant, and of maintaining and defending the liberty of their country, which must be grateful to brave and generous minds. They asked him where were his resources, his army, his treasures? and, on his remaining silent, they called him a madman, and threatened to apprehend him.

7. Disappointed in the expectations he had formed of gaining those soldiers to his purpose, Gustavus retired from the city with great expedition; and his arrival being now publicly known, he was again obliged to have recourse to the garb of a peasant, in order to conceal himself from the Danish emissaries. He was, nevertheless, on the point of being seized, when he escaped in a wagon of hay, and sought shelter in a retired spot, where stood an ancient castle belonging to his family. From thence he wrote to his friends, informing them of his return, and requesting them to assemble a force for expelling the tyrant; but they refused to undertake so hazardous and desperate an attempt. They were no longer the bold and intrepid Swedes, jealous of their liberty, and the enemies of tyranny and oppression. The terror excited by the massacre at Stockholm, had frozen up their courage.

8. Perceiving, therefore, that mean selfishness had supplanted public spirit among his friends, Gustavus applied to the peasants; who being a bold and independent race of men, had nothing to fear from the indignation of Christian, and who, he hoped, would embrace with ardour the opportunity of expelling the tyrant, and delivering their country. In vain did he mingle with them, range through their villages, assist at their assemblies and repasts, harangue them, and stimulate them to shake off the yoke. They answered, "Under the government of the king of Denmark, we have salt and herrings. Whatever may be the success of a revolution, we cannot be otherwise than poor. Peasants we are; and peasants we must remain, whoever is king of Sweden."

9. Repulsed in that quarter, he determined to proceed to Dalecarlia, where, if he failed in the attempt of exciting the inhabitants to revolt, he could live securely in the high mountains and thick forests of that country. Attended, therefore, by a peasant, to whom he was known, he travelled in disguise; and, after a laborious and painful journey, arrived in the mountains of Dalecarlia, where he was deserted by his companion and guide, who robbed him of all the money he had provided

for his subsistence. Destitute and in want, in a strange place, unknowing and unknown, he was urged by the call of hunger, and entered among the miners, with whom he wrought to earn a maintenance. Under the habit of a peasant, a woman in the mines perceived a fine embroidered shirt, which induced her to suspect that he was some man of distinguished rank, whom persecution had driven to seek an asylum in those caverns. The conjecture was reported to a neighbouring gentleman, who, prompted by curiosity, repaired to the mine to offer protection to the unfortunate stranger. On approaching, he recognized Gustavus, with whom he had been acquainted at the university of Upsal. Prudence obliged him to conceal his astonishment; but at night he sent to him, made him an offer of his house, and gave him the strongest assurances of his friendship and protection.

10. Gustavus embraced with joy the offer of his generous friend, who informed him the Dalecarlians bore with impatience the Danish yoke; that they were attached to the family of their ancient sovereigns; and that great were the means of attack and defence, furnished by the nature of the country and the courage of the inhabitants. The frequent repetition of this conversation encouraged Gustavus to disclose his designs to his friend, who was no sooner informed of the intentions of the fugitive youth, than he endeavoured to dissuade him from his purpose, by representing to him, in the strongest light, the danger and difficulty of such an enterprise. Gustavus neither believed the hospitable Dalecarlian a friend to the Danes, nor did he think him capable of betraying him. But not wishing to disturb the life of a quiet and peaceable man, he departed; and trusting to his own good fortune, took his way without a guide, through forests and over mountains, and arrived safe at the house of a nobleman named Peterson, with whom he had formerly been acquainted in the army.

11. Peterson received him with marks of respect and esteem, listened with every appearance of lively interest to the recital of his misfortunes, seemed more

affected by them than Gustavus himself, exclaimed against the tyranny of the Danes, and entered into his projects with apparent ardor and enthusiasm. This perfidious wretch named the nobles and peasants on whom he could depend; and having become acquainted with the designs of Gustavus, privately went to a Danish officer, and, in the hope of a rich recompense, communicated to him the projects and retreat of his guest. The Dane hastened to Peterson's house, which he surrounded with soldiers; but Providence watched over the preservation of the fugitive patriot. Peterson's wife, moved with compassion, had opportunely apprised him of the perfidy of her husband, and committed him to the care of a faithful servant, who conducted him to the house of a neighbouring clergyman.

12. That ecclesiastic was a person who attentively studied mankind, reflected on public affairs, observed the course of events, aspired to no preferment, and was attached to no party. He received Gustavus with respect and tenderness, and assured him of his honour and secrecy. Far from being terrified by the project which the youthful hero entertained of opposing the power of Denmark, he traced out the path which was to lead him to ultimate success. "You must not," said he, "endeavour to gain over to your party, the nobles, who are most of them satisfied with the security and independence which they enjoy in the mountains, and who take little concern in the revolutions that happen at court. It will be difficult to prevail on them to arm their vassals, because their wealth entirely depends on the number and industry of that body of men, whose labours will be suspended by a war. But the most certain means of obtaining the end proposed, will be to induce the vassals to take up arms of their own accord."

13. In order to prepare matters for that crisis, the clergyman undertook to propagate a report, that the Danes were preparing to enter the province to establish new taxes by force of arms. He employed his relatives and friends to disseminate the alarming intelligence; and when he was convinced that the public mind was

sufficiently impressed with the idea, he advised Gustavus to repair to Mora, where all the peasants of the surrounding district were wont to assemble annually at a public feast. "Never," said this sensible man, "are the vassals more bold, or more inclined to revolt, than at the times of those meetings, when they estimate their strength by their number." Agreeably to the advice of this honest and sage counsellor, the young hero departed for Mora; and on his arrival, found the peasants prepared for his reception, and impatient to see a nobleman illustrious for his birth, his valour, and his sufferings.

14. He appeared in the assembly with an air of intrepidity and resolution, tempered by a mixture of melancholy which was naturally excited by the death of his father and the other senators. The gazing multitude were instantly touched with compassion. But, when he spoke to them of the horrible massacre at Stockholm, of the tyranny of Christian, of the persecution of the provinces, and of the miseries of the kingdom in general, the assembly was inflamed with indignation, exclaimed against the Danes, and vowed to revenge the death of their countrymen with the last drop of their blood. They immediately resolved to renounce their allegiance to Christian, and to sacrifice, without distinction, all the Danes in the province, as an atonement for the massacre of the Swedes. Gustavus took advantage of their kindled ardor, assembled around him the most determined of his hearers, attacked the castle in which resided the governor, who was unprepared for making resistance, took it by assault, and put to the sword the commandant and all his Danes.

15. In a few days, the whole province declared in favour of Gustavus; the peasants flocked in crowds to his standard; and, from that moment, the life of this young hero was an uninterrupted series of triumphs and success. At the head of the brave Dalecarlians, he undertook the most perilous enterprises of war; and his efforts were invariably crowned with victory. Being engaged in besieging Stockholm, which he closely pressed, and the Danes sailing to the relief of the gar-

rison, a sudden frost bound their vessels in ice at a distance from the port. Gustavus formed the bold resolution of burning the hostile fleet, and marched at the head of his troops, who grasped their swords in one hand, and torches in the other. They endeavoured to scale the vessels; but the Danes commenced a terrible discharge of cannon and musketry. In spite, however, of their brave resistance, several of the ships were set on fire, and abandoned with precipitation by each of the contending parties. The darkness of the night, the groans of the wounded, the shrieks of those who were perishing in the flames, and the crackling of the ice, struck the Danes with terror and consternation. Many of their vessels were destroyed; and, in all probability, they would not have saved a single one, had not an intervening thaw prevented a second attack, which Gustavus intended to have made the following day.

16. This victory, which was gained in the sight of the capital, induced the most lukewarm of his countrymen to join him. A diet having assembled for the purpose of electing a sovereign, the speaker, in characterising a patriotic king, drew the portrait of Gustavus, whose vigilance, valour, activity, and prudence, would, he said, be able to oppose and resist all the future attempts of Denmark to subjugate and enslave the nation again, under pretence of renewing the union of Calmar. This harangue was received with universal applause; and the people, impelled by their zeal, anticipated the votes of the senators and deputies of the provinces, and proclaimed Gustavus king of Sweden. The air was rent with the acclamations of the multitude, and he was styled the saviour and defender of his country. Gustavus modestly endeavoured to refuse the crown; but suffered himself to be prevailed on by the prayers and entreaties of the whole assembly, and was accordingly acknowledged king of Sweden and of the two Gothlands, by the united voices of the Senate, deputies, and people, who took an oath of fidelity to the new monarch.

QUESTIONS.

1. By what name is Christian II. sometimes called?—2. Who is Gustavus Vasa?—3. How came he at Denmark, a prisoner or hostage?—4. Who crowned Christian II. king of Sweden?—5. How many of the Swedish nobles did Christian murder?—6. Under what pretence was this murder committed?—7. When was it?—8. How did Gustavus Vasa escape from his keeper Eric Banner?—9. When was he acknowledged king of Sweden?

A SUMMER'S MORN.

1. SWEET the beams of rosy morning,
 Silent chasing gloom away;
 Lovely tints the sky adorning,
 Harbingers of opening day!
 See the king of day appearing—
 Slow his progress and serene;
 Soon I feel the influence cheering
 Of this grand and lovely scene!

Lovely songsters join their voices,
 Harmony the grove pervades;
 All in nature now rejoices,—
 Light and joy succeed the shades.
 Stars withdraw, and man arises,
 To his labour cheerful goes;
 Day's returning blessings prizes,
 And in praise his pleasure shows!

3. May each morn, that in succession
 Adds new mercies ever flowing,
 Leave a strong and deep impression
 Of my debt, forever growing!
 Debt of love, ah! how increasing!
 Days and years fresh blessings bring;
 But my praise shall flow unceasing,
 And my Maker's love I'll sing!

JOAN OF ARC.

1. The throne of France being vacated by the death of Charles VI, his son Charles VII, and Henry VI, king of England, were competitors for the crown. The cause of the English monarch was bravely supported by the sword; and final success seemed almost ready to decide in his favour. City after city had been successively besieged, and successively fell before the arms of the victorious pretender. The city of Orleans, an important post of communication between the northern and southern parts, was the principal obstacle to his progress. He resolved, therefore, to lay siege to this place. The attack and the defence were carried on with an equal degree of vigour; but, after many signal instances of valour performed by the besiegers and the besieged, Charles was on the point of giving up the city for lost, and thought of retiring to make his last stand at Languedoc.

2. At this critical juncture, that celebrated historical phenomenon, the Maid of Orleans, appeared; and his affairs took a turn which the most sanguine imagination could never have expected. This singular character was a country girl, named Joan d' Arc, who lived at a village of Lorrain, in the humble station of servant at an inn. It is said, that in this situation she had learned to ride and manage a horse, by being frequently accustomed to act as hostler. The enthusiastic turn of her imagination, inflamed by daily accounts of the occurrences then taking place, inspired her with a romantic desire of relieving the distresses of her country and of its youthful monarch. Her inexperienced mind continually revolving these important subjects, she mistook the impulses of fancy for celestial inspirations, and imagined herself vested with a divine commission to restore her sovereign to his rights, and her country to its independence.

3. In this persuasion, and animated by an enthusiasm, which, inspiring intrepidity, caused her to overlook all dangers and difficulties, and cast off all reserve, she presented herself before Baudricourt, governor of Vau-

couleurs, and informed him of her divine mission. The governor, influenced either by superstition or policy, sent her immediately to Chinon, where the French king then resided. Being introduced to the king, she immediately offered, in the name of the great Creator of heaven and earth, to raise the siege of Orleans, and to reinstate him in his kingdom, by conducting him to Rheims, to be anointed and crowned.

4. The king and court, perceiving that she might be made an useful instrument in this crisis of difficulty and danger, resolved to adopt the illusion; and an excellent plan was contrived to give it weight in the minds of the people. An assembly of divines examined her mission, and pronounced it supernatural; a jury of matrons declared her an unspotted virgin; and every story that craft could invent, or ignorance believe, was used to attest the reality of her inspiration. It was every where published, that when first introduced to the king, whom she had never before seen, she instantly knew him, although purposely divested of every mark that might distinguish him from the rest of the assembly; and that she demanded, as the instrument of her future victories, a sword of a particular kind, which was kept in the church of St. Catharine de Fierbois, and which, though she had never seen it, she minutely described. It was universally asserted, and as universally believed, that heaven had declared in favour of Charles, and laid bare its outstretched arm to take vengeance of his enemies.

5. The minds of men being thus prepared, the maid was mounted on horseback, arrayed in all the habiliments of war, and shown to the people, who received her with the loudest acclamations. The English at first affected to treat this farce with derision; but their imagination was secretly struck; and superstition, ingrafted on ignorance, is irresistible. Feeling their courage abated, they conceived themselves to be under the influence of divine vengeance; and a general consternation took place among those troops, which, before this event, were elated with victory, and fearless of danger. The maid, at the head of a convoy, arrayed

in martial habiliments, and displaying a consecrated standard, entered Orleans, and was received as a celestial deliverer. But the count de Dunois, who commanded in the place, sensible of the difficulty of carrying on this farce, as well as of its importance, and of the dangerous consequences of any event that might detect its fallacy, did not deviate from the regular rules of war, nor suffer his mode of operations to be directed by enthusiasm.)

6. He represented to her, that when heaven favours a cause, the divine will requires that the best human means should be used, to correspond with celestial aid. Thus, while she seemed to conduct every thing, she acted under his direction; and, by his instruction, she defeated the English in several desperate sallies, drove them from their intrenchments, and compelled them to raise the siege. This event gave validity to her pretensions, and confirmed the general opinion of her divine mission. The French were more elated, and the English more dismayed.

7. The raising of the siege of Orleans was one part of her promise to Charles; the other, which was his coronation at Rheims, yet remained to be performed, and appeared a work of some difficulty. Rheims was in a distant part of the kingdom, and in the hands of a victorious enemy. The whole country through which it was necessary to pass, was occupied by the English, who filled all the fortified places with garrisons. It was, however, deemed expedient to maintain the belief of something supernatural in those events. Charles, therefore, resolved to avail himself of the consternation of the enemy, and to follow his prophetic conductress. He accordingly began his march towards Rheims, at the head of twelve thousand men. The English troops were every where petrified with terror; every city and fortress surrendered without resistance. Rheims opened its gates, and he was anointed and crowned, A. D. 1430, amidst the loudest acclamations.

8. The maid of Orleans now declared that her mission was concluded; but by the persuasions of the king,

she consented to remain in his service. This determination, however, proved fatal to the heroine. Having imprudently thrown herself into Compeigne, then besieged by the English, she was taken prisoner in making a sortie.) Policy, superstition, and vengeance, concurred in procuring her destruction. The duke of Bedford was desirous of dispelling an illusion which converted the English into cowards, and the French into heroes. The measures which he took for that purpose have disgraced his name in the eyes of an enlightened posterity, but they were perfectly in unison with the superstitious spirit of that age. By his order, she was tried by an ecclesiastical court, on charges of impiety, heresy, and sorcery. Her ignorant or iniquitous judges found her guilty of all these crimes; and this enthusiastic, but admirable patriot and heroine, whose life and conduct had been irreproachable, was consigned to the flames.

9. The revolution produced by the maid of Orleans is perhaps the most singular that has occurred in any age or country, and her character and pretensions have been a subject of dispute among historians and divines. While the French writers affirmed that she was commissioned of God, and the English considered her as an agent of the devil, national prejudice, united with superstition, directed their opinion. An accurate knowledge of the human mind, and of political history, will solve the problem, without having recourse to any thing of a miraculous nature. Some have supposed that the whole affair originated in the court, and that Joan d' Arc was from the very first instructed in the part that she was to act. Pope Pius II. seems to have inclined to this opinion.

10. But from her examination before the judges, in which she declares that she had frequently heard voices, and been favoured with visits by St. Catharine and St. Margaret, it appears that she was a deranged visionary, that the whole affair had originated from her own disordered imagination, and that the king and court considered her as an instrument that might be of use, and could be of no prejudice, in their situation, which

already appeared desperate, availed themselves of the illusion, and seconded it by imposture. On these principles, this extraordinary affair, the discussion of which has employed so many pens, is easily explained; and sound reason, untinctured with superstition, will readily conclude, that the celebrated maid of Orleans was neither saint nor sorcerer, but a visionary enthusiast. The whole transaction was nothing more than a seasonable and successful concurrence of enthusiasm in the maid, of political craft in the court, and of superstitious credulity in the people, all which are far from being miraculous circumstances.

11. After the execution of the unfortunate maid, the illusion vanished; but, as if heaven had resolved to mark with disapprobation this act of inhuman barbarity, the affairs of the English grew every day more unsuccessful. The duke of Burgundy deserted their interests; the duke of Bedford soon after died; and the French were every where victorious. Paris surrendered to their arms on Low Sunday, 1436, } after having been fourteen years in the possession of the English. Normandy and Guienne, with Bordeaux, its capital, were conquered, and the English forever expelled from France, with the single exception of Calais; which they still retained, as a solitary monument of their former greatness on the continent.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who were competitors for the crown of France on the death of Charles VI?—2. What city seemed to present the most formidable obstacle to the final success of Henry VI?—3. What singular character came to the aid of Charles VII. when Orleans was besieged?—4. What had been her situation, as to rank and employment?—5. What promise did she make to the French king?—6. Were her services accepted?—7. What was thought of the maid of Orleans by the French?—8. What was thought of her by the English?—9. What method did the count de Dunois take with her?—10. Did she accomplish her promise to the king?—11. What induced her to remain in the king's service, after finishing her mission, as she termed it?—12. What was the consequence of her continuing in it?—13. Of what crimes was she accused by the English?—14. What was done with

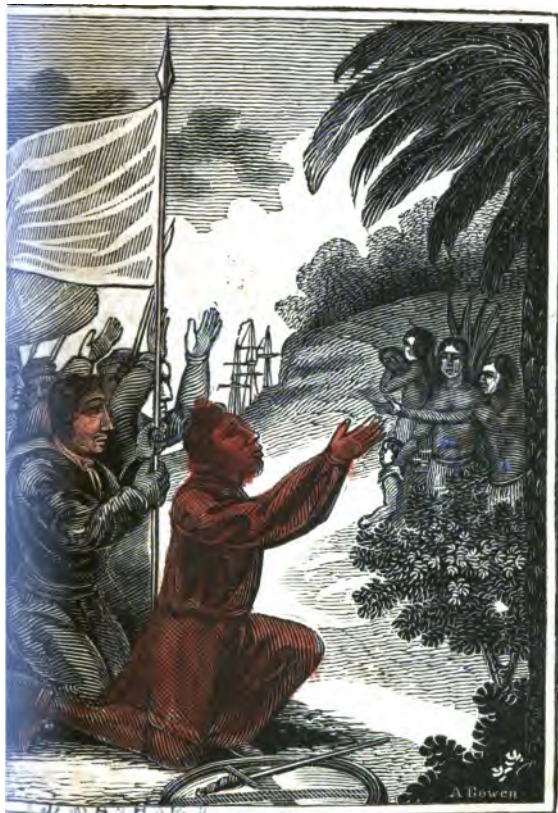
her?—15. What opinion did pope Pius and some others entertain concerning her?—16. On what principle can the whole of this extraordinary affair be accounted for?—17. When did Paris surrender to the French arms?—18. How long was it in the hands of the English.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

1. It has been believed by many, that America was not unknown to the ancients ; and from certain passages in the works of some of the writers of antiquity, as well as coincidences in the languages and customs of some nations of the old and new continent, plausible reasons have been advanced in favour of the theory. Whatever knowledge, however, the inhabitants of Europe possessed of America, no traces of it existed at the period of the revival of letters ; it was generally supposed that the Canaries, or Fortunate Islands, formed the western boundary of their world. For the correction of this error, and the discovery of a new continent, mankind are indebted to the genius and enterprise of Christopher Colon, a native of Genoa, better known to us by the name of Christopher Columbus. From a long and close application to the study of geography, this great man had obtained a knowledge of the true figure of the earth, far beyond what was common to the age in which he lived. Another continent, he conceived, necessarily existed, to complete the balance of the terra-queous globe ; but he erroneously conceived it to be connected with that of India. This error arose from the construction of the maps of that period, which represented the oriental countries of Asia as stretching vastly further to the east, than actual observation has proved them to extend.

2. Having fully satisfied himself with the theoretical truth of his system, his adventurous spirit made him eager to verify it by experiment. For this purpose he applied to the senate of Genoa, developing his views, and representing the advantages which would accrue to the republic from the possession of a new route to

No. 2.



FIRST LANDING OF COLUMBUS IN AMERICA.

the great source of opulence. The Genoese, however, treated the idea as absurd and chimerical, and rejected the proposal with contempt. Although disappointed in this first attempt, Columbus was not discouraged. Through his brother Bartholomew, he applied to Henry VII. of England; but the cautious prudence of that monarch deprived him of the honour of patronizing a man whose friendship would have immortalized him. The next attempt of Columbus was at the Portuguese court, which had in that age greatly distinguished itself by favouring the spirit of discovery along the African coast. Here he met with an additional mortification, from an attempt to anticipate him in the enterprise, which, however, proved abortive at an early period. As a last resource, he now laid his scheme before the court of Spain.

3. After eight years of anxious solicitation and contemptuous neglect, he obtained a gleam of royal favour on his bold and original project. The interest of queen Isabella procured him three small vessels, with which he set sail from the port of Palos, in Andalusia, on the 3d of August, 1492. He steered directly for the Canaries, whence after having refitted as well as he could his crazy and ill-appointed flotilla, he again sailed on the 6th of September, keeping a due western course over an unknown ocean. Several days passed without a sight of land; and the anxieties of the sailors, arising from this circumstance, were heightened by the variation of the compass, then first perceived. An open mutiny took place, which required all the courage and address of the great navigator to quell. They pursued their course; but when thirty days had elapsed without any indication of an approach to land, both officers and men joined in a second revolt. Columbus was forced partially to give way to their remonstrances. He consented to return, if, after proceeding three days longer, nothing appeared to confirm his expectations.

4. With these assurances, they again proceeded, and about midnight, on the 11th of October, Columbus, who was standing on the fore-castle, discovered a light ahead. Morning displayed the joyful sight of land;

and the sailors were now as ardent in their expression of repentance and admiration, as they had before been insolent and ungovernable. The island of St. Salvador, one of the Bahamas, was the first part of America trodden by the feet of Europeans. From the rude poverty of the inhabitants, Columbus soon perceived that he was still at a distance from the shores of India. The fertile island of St. Domingo was next discovered; and from some specimens of gold, Columbus began to entertain brighter hopes. Here he left some of his men to form a colony; and having touched at some of the other West India islands, among which were Cuba and Hispaniola, he returned to Spain. On his arrival, he immediately proceeded to court, where he was received with admiration and respect. The glory and benefit which promised to result from the discovery, rendered the government eager to forward his design. A fleet of seventeen sail was prepared; and Columbus, who was now appointed viceroy of all the countries he should discover, departed on his second voyage, accompanied by many persons of rank and distinction. During the progress of the voyage, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Marigalante, Gaudaloupe, Montserat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica.

5. The success of this great man did not fail to excite envy an intrigue against him at the court of Spain. An officer was sent to act as a spy over his actions; and Columbus soon found it necessary to return to Europe, for the purpose of defeating the machinations of his enemies. After great difficulty, he obtained leave to set out on a third expedition in 1498. Sailing south from Spain as far as the equator, he then directed his course to the west, and steered with the trade winds across the Atlantic. At the end of seventeen days the island of Trinidad was discovered, and on the 1st of August he reached the mouth of the great river Orinoko. From the magnitude of this stream, he concluded that he had discovered the continent, and the continuance of land to the west confirmed the belief. He then coasted along westward to Cape Vela, from which he

crossed over to Hispaniola. The new glory which Columbus had now acquired excited fresh intrigues against him, which prevailed so far, that he was superseded in his government, (and sent home in irons.) He justified himself, however, to the court, and in 1502 was allowed to depart on a fourth voyage, in the course of which he discovered the harbour of Porto Bello, and a considerable part of the continent. He then returned to Europe, and died at Valladolid, in the year 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

6. A spirit of discovery was now universally excited. In 1499, Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, and a man of science and genius, sailed with a small squadron to the new world, but made but very little addition to the former discoveries. He however published on his return the first description of the new countries that had appeared; and the injustice of mankind has given his name to the whole continent an honour to which Columbus was so much more justly entitled. In the year 1500, the coast of Brazil was accidentally discovered by Alvarez de Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, in consequence of having been driven too far to the west on a voyage round the Cape of Good Hope. The idea entertained originally by Columbus, that America was a part of the continent of Asia, was generally received until 1513, when the Pacific Ocean being descried from the mountains of the isthmus of Darien, this chimera began to vanish.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who discovered America?—2. What led Columbus to suppose there was another continent?—3. To whom did he apply for aid in prosecuting his intentions?—4. Who finally aided him?—5. What difficulties did he have to encounter, after he left the Canaries?—6. When did he discover land?—7. What island did he first discover?—8. How many voyages of discovery did he make?—9. What discoveries did he make in the third voyage?—10. Under what circumstances did he return to Spain from his third voyage?—11. When did he die, and at what age?—12. Why is the western continent called America?—13. What should it have been called?

THE TIMES OF OLD.

Who needs a teacher to admonish him
 That flesh is grass?—That earthly things are mist?
 What are our joys but dreams? And what our hopes
 But goodly shadows in the summer cloud?
 There's not a wind that blows, but bears with it
 Some rainbow promise—Not a moment flies
 But puts its sickle in the fields of life,
 And mows its thousands, with their joys and cares.
 'Tis but as yesterday, since on yon stars,
 Which now I view, the Chaldee shepherd* gaz'd,
 In his mid-watch, observant, and dispos'd
 The twinkling hosts, as fancy gave them shape.
 Yet in the interim, what mighty shocks
 Have buffeted mankind—whole nations raz'd—
 Cities made desolate—the polish'd sunk
 To barbarism, and once barbaric states
 Swaying the wand of science and of arts;
 Illustrious deeds and memorable names
 Blotted from record, and upon the tongue
 Of grey tradition, voluble no more.

Where are the heroes of the ages past;
 Where the brave chieftains—where the mighty ones
 Who flourish'd in the infancy of days?—
 All to the grave gone down!—On their fall'n fame
 Exultant, mocking at the pride of man,
 Sits grim *Forgetfulness*.—The warrior's arm
 Lies nerveless on the pillow of its shame;
 Hush'd is his stormy voice, and quench'd the blaze
 Of his red eye-ball. Yesterday his name
 Was mighty on the earth—To-day—'tis what?
 The meteor of the night of distant years,
 That flash'd unnotic'd, save by wrinkled eld,
 Musing at midnight upon prophecies,
 Who at her lonely lattice saw the gleam
 Point to the mist-pois'd shroud, then quietly
 Clos'd her pale lips, and lock'd the secret up
 Safe in the charnel's treasures.

* Alluding to the first astronomical observations, made by the Chaldee shepherds.

O how weak
 Is mortal man! How trifling—how confin'd
 His scope of vision!—Puff'd with confidence,
 His phrase grows big with immortality;
 And he, poor insect of a summer's day,
 Dreams of eternal honours to his name;
 Of endless glory, and perennial bays.
 He idly reasons of eternity,
 As of the train of ages,—when, alas!
 Ten thousand thousand of his centuries
 Are, in comparison, a little point,
 Too trivial for account.—O it is strange,
 'Tis passing strange, to mark his fallacies;
 Behold him proudly view some pompous pile,
 Whose high dome swells to emulate the skies,
 And smile and say, my name shall live with this
 'Till *Time* shall be no more; while at his feet,
 Yea, at his very feet, the crumbling dust
 Of the fall'n fabric of the other day,
 Preaches the solemn lesson.—He *should* know,
 That time must conquer. That the loudest blast
 That ever fill'd Renown's obstrep'rous trump,
 Fades in the lapse of ages, and expires.
 Who lies inhum'd in the terrific gloom
 Of the gigantic pyramid? Or who
 Rear'd its huge wall?—Oblivion laughs and says,
 The prey is mine. They sleep, and never more
 Their names shall strike upon the ear of man,
 Their mem'ry burst its fetters.

Where is *Rome*?

She lives but in the tale of other times;
 Her proud pavilions are the hermits' home.
 And her long colonnades, her public walks,
 Now faintly echo to the pilgrim's feet,
 Who comes to muse in solitude, and trace,
 Through the rank moss reveal'd, her honour'd dust.
 But not to Rome alone has fate confin'd
 The doom of ruin; cities numberless,
 Tyre, Sidon, Carthage, Babylon, and Troy,
 And rich Phœnicia—they are blotted out,
 Half-raz'd from memory; and their very name
 And *being*, in dispute!

CAPTURE OF MONTEZUMA.

1. In 1518 the governor of Cuba, (Don Velasques,) projected an expedition against Mexico; and desirous to arrogate to himself the glory and advantages of the conquest, he conferred the command on Hernando Cortez; a bold adventurer, whose abilities were equal to any undertaking, and whose fortune and rank were not such as seemed calculated to inspire him with any higher ideas than of acting in perfect subordination to his employer. The event, however, proved contrary to the expectation of Velasques. Before the expedition sailed from Cuba, he began to suspect the aspiring ambition of Cortez, and resolved to deprive him of the command. But Cortez, apprised of his design, and perfectly secure of the attachment of his followers, immediately set sail with eleven small vessels, of which the largest was only 100 tons burden—three were of 70 or 80; and the others were only small open barks. His whole force consisted only of 617 soldiers and seamen, all volunteers, and men of the most daring resolution.

2. With this small force he undertook the conquest of a vast empire. Having landed on the continent, he laid the foundation of the town of Vera Cruz, and built a fortress sufficiently strong to resist the attacks of an Indian army. At his first arrival, he received a message from Montezuma, the Mexican emperor, requiring to know his intentions in visiting his country. Cortez announced himself as ambassador from the king of Spain, the most powerful monarch of the east; and declaring himself entrusted with such proposals as he could impart only to the emperor in person, requested to be immediately conducted to the capital. The Mexican officers hesitated at this request, which they knew would be extremely embarrassing to Montezuma, whose mind had become harassed with alarming apprehensions ever since he had heard of the landing of the Spaniards on his coast.

3. During this interview, some painters, in the train of the Mexican officers, were employed in sketching, in their rude manner, the figures of the ships, the

horses, the artillery, the soldiers, and whatever attracted their attention. Cortez perceiving this, and being informed that the pictures were designed to be presented to Montezuma, in order to give him a just idea of those strange and wonderful objects, resolved to render the representation as striking as possible, by exhibiting such a spectacle as might give both them and their monarch an awful impression of the irresistible force of his arms. The trumpets, by his order, sounded an alarm: the troops in a moment formed in order of battle; both cavalry and infantry performed their martial exercises and evolutions; and the artillery thundering in repeated discharges, being pointed against a thick forest adjoining to the camp, made dreadful havoc among the trees. The Mexicans were struck with that amazement, which a spectacle so novel, so extraordinary, so terrible, and so much above their comprehension, might be expected to excite. Reports and representations of all these things were sent to Montezuma, who, as well as his subjects, conceived that the Spaniards were more than human beings, an opinion which Cortez took every opportunity of confirming and impressing on the minds of the Mexicans.

4. Montezuma afterwards sent many ambassadors to the Spanish camp with rich presents, expressing the greatest friendship for Cortez and the sovereign of Castile; but constantly requesting him to depart from his dominions. This was the purport of every message from the Mexican monarch. Cortez, however, continuing to advance, the request was changed into a command; Montezuma absolutely forbid him to approach the capital, and required his immediate departure from the country. The Spanish general, however, determined to proceed to Mexico, and concluded an alliance with several of the Mexican chiefs, who being weary with Montezuma's tyranny, took this opportunity of revolting against his government. Cortez soon perceived, that although the Mexican empire was extensive, populous, and powerful, it was very far from being firmly consolidated, a circumstance which inspired him with new hopes of effecting its subjugation.

5. Previous to the commencement of his march towards Mexico, Cortez represented to his followers, that it would be the highest degree of folly to think of returning to poverty and disgrace, after having spent their whole fortunes in the equipment of the expedition; that they must absolutely resolve either to conquer or perish; that the ships were so much damaged, as to be unfit for service; and that their small force would derive a very considerable accession of strength from the junction of 100 men necessarily left with the fleet. By these arguments, he convinced them of the necessity of fixing their hopes on what lay before them, without ever looking back, or suffering the idea of a retreat to enter their minds. With the consent of the whole army, the vessels were stripped of their sails, rigging, iron-work, and other articles, which might become useful, and afterwards broken in pieces. "Thus, by an effort of magnanimity, to which," says Dr. Robertson, "there is nothing parallel in history, 500 men voluntarily consented to be shut up in a hostile country, filled with powerful and unknown nations; and having precluded every means of escape, left themselves without any resource but their own valour and perseverance."

6. Cortez landed in Mexico on the 2d of April, 1518; and on the 16th of August, he began his march towards the metropolis, with 500 foot, 15 horse, and 6 field pieces. The rest of his men were left to garrison the fort of Vera Cruz. In his progress, he was interrupted by a war with the Ilascalans, a numerous and warlike people, whose impetuous valour, however, was obliged to yield to the superiority of European weapons and tactics. The Ilascalans, who were inveterate enemies to the Mexicans, having experienced the valour of the Spaniards, whom they regarded as invincible, concluded with them a treaty of peace, and afterwards of alliance; and contributed in no small degree to the success of their enterprise. Cortez, with his Spaniards, accompanied with 6000 of his new allies, now advanced towards Mexico. They were met, in different parts of their journey, by messengers from Montezuma, bearing

rich presents, and sometimes inviting them to proceed, but at others requesting them to retire. No measures were taken to oppose his progress; and such was the embarrassment of the Mexican monarch, that the Spaniards were already at the gates of his capital, before it was determined whether to receive them as friends or enemies.

7. Mexico, seated on islands near the western side of the lake, was inaccessible except by three causeways, extending over the shallow waters. The Spaniards being arrived on the borders of the lake, advanced along the causeway with great circumspection; and on their near approach to the city, they were met by about 1000 persons clothed in mantles of fine cotton, and adorned with plumes. These announced the approach of Montezuma, and were followed by about 200 others in an uniform dress, adorned also with plumes, and marching in solemn silence. Next appeared a company of a higher rank, in shewy apparel; and in the midst of them was Montezuma, in a chair or litter, richly ornamented with gold, and feathers of various colours, and carried on the shoulders of four of his principal officers, while others supported a canopy over his head. Thus the Mexican monarch, surrounded with barbaric pomp, introduced into his capital the subverter of his throne. He conducted the Spaniards into the city, assigned them quarters in a large building encompassed with a stone wall, with towers at proper distances, and containing courts and apartments sufficiently spacious for their accommodation, and that of their allies. Here Cortez planted the artillery, posted sentinels, and ordered his troops to preserve the same strictness of discipline, as if they had been encamped in the face of an enemy.

8. During some time the greatest harmony subsisted between the Spaniards and Mexicans; and Montezuma made presents of such value, not only to Cortez, and his officers, but also to his private men, as demonstrated the opulence of his kingdom. The Spaniards, however, soon began to reflect on their situation, shut up in Mexico, and surrounded by the waters of its lake. And the

Ilascalans had earnestly dissuaded Cortez from venturing to enter a city of so peculiar a situation as Mexico, where he might be shut up as in a snare, out of which it would be impossible to escape. These allies had also assured him that the Mexican priests had, in the name of the gods, counselled their sovereign to admit the Spaniards into his capital, where he might with perfect security cut them off at one blow. The mind of Cortez, however, was equal to his trying situation, and he formed a plan no less extraordinary than daring. He resolved to seize Montezuma in his palace, and to carry him prisoner to the Spanish quarters. From the veneration of the Mexicans for the person of their monarch, and from their implicit obedience to his will, he hoped, by having Montezuma in his power, to have the supreme direction of affairs; or at least, by having so sacred a pledge in his hands, he made no doubt of being secure from aggression.

9. Before Cortez entered Mexico, an engagement had taken place near Vera Cruz between the Mexicans and a detachment of the Spanish garrison of that place; and although the Spaniards were victorious, one of them happened to be taken prisoner. This unfortunate captive was immediately beheaded, and his head, after being carried in triumph to different cities, in order to convince the people that their invaders were not immortal, was at last sent to Mexico. Although Cortez had received intelligence of this affair in his route, it had not deterred him from entering the city; but, reflecting on his precarious situation, he resolved to make it a pretext for seizing the emperor. At his usual hour of visiting Montezuma, he went to the palace, accompanied by five of his principal officers, and as many trusty soldiers. Thirty chosen men followed after, not in order, but sauntering at intervals, as if they had no other object than curiosity. Small parties were posted at proper intervals between the Spanish quarters and the court, and the rest of the troops were under arms ready to sally out on the first alarm.

10. Cortez, with his attendants, being admitted as usual, he reproached the monarch with being the author

of the violent assault made on the Spaniards near Vera Cruz, by one of his officers. Montezuma, confounded at this unexpected reproach, asserted his innocence ; and as a proof, gave orders to bring the officer and his accomplices prisoners to Mexico. Cortez professed himself convinced of Montezuma's innocence, but told him, that to produce the same conviction on the minds of his followers, it was necessary that he should exhibit a proof of his confidence and attachment, by removing from his palace, and taking up his residence in the Spanish quarters, where he should be honoured as became a great monarch. Montezuma remonstrated against the strange proposal. His remonstrances, however, were vain—he saw that Cortez was determined, and he found himself under the necessity of compliance. He was therefore carried in silent and sorrowful pomp to the Spanish quarters ; but when it was known that the strangers were carrying away the emperor, the people broke out in the wildest transports of rage, and threatened the Spaniards with immediate destruction. But as soon as Montezuma waved his hand, and declared that it was an act of his own choice, the multitude, accustomed to revere every intimation of the sovereign's pleasure, quietly dispersed.

11. Cortez having the emperor in his power, now governed the empire in his name; and Montezuma was only the organ of his will, although he was attended as usual by his ministers, and the external aspect of the government underwent no alteration. The unfortunate monarch, however, was obliged to acknowledge himself a vassal to the king of Spain, and to accompany his professions of fealty and homage by a magnificent present to his new sovereign. His subjects, imitating his example, brought in liberal contributions. All the gold and silver, however, which the Spaniards had acquired since their entrance into Mexico, being now collected and melted down, amounted to no more than 600,000 pesos, exclusive of jewels and other ornaments, which were preserved on account of their curious workmanship. On being divided, a fifth part was set aside as a tax due to the king ; another fifth was allot-

ted to Cortez as commander-in-chief; the other officers received their shares in proportion to their rank; and when the expenses of the expedition were deducted, the share of a private man amounted to a hundred pesos, a sum much below their expectation.

12. In the mean time, Qualpopoca, the Mexican general, who commanded in the engagement mentioned in section 9th, together with his son, and five of the principal officers that had served under him, were brought prisoners to the capital, by the order of Montezuma, and given up to Cortez; who after undergoing the form of trial by a Spanish court martial, and though they acted as brave and loyal subjects in obeying the orders of their sovereign, in opposing the invaders of their country, they were condemned to be burnt alive. The unhappy victims were instantly led forth. The pile on which they were laid was composed of the weapons collected in the royal magazine for the public defence. An innumerable multitude of Mexicans beheld, in silent astonishment, this fresh insult offered to the majesty of their empire—an officer of distinction committed to the flames, by the authority of strangers, for having done what he owed in duty to his sovereign; and the arms provided by their ancestors for avenging such wrongs, consumed before their eyes.

13. Cortez believing, notwithstanding his confession to the contrary already mentioned, that Qualpopoca would not have ventured to act without orders from his master, was not satisfied with the punishment of the instrument, while the author escaped with impunity. Just before Qualpopoca was led out to suffer, Cortez entered the apartment of Montezuma, followed by some of his officers, and a soldier carrying a pair of fetters; and approaching the monarch with a stern countenance, told him that the persons who were now going to suffer, had charged him as the cause of the outrage that was committed; and that it was necessary that he likewise should make atonement for that guilt; without waiting for a reply, he commanded his soldiers to put the fetters on his legs—the orders were instantly obeyed. The monarch, who had been accustomed to have his

person acknowledged as sacred and inviolable, considered this profanation of it as a prelude to his death, broke out into loud lamentations and complaints. His attendants fell at his feet, and bathed them with their tears, bearing up the fetters in their hands with officious tenderness, to lighten their pressure. When Cortez returned from the execution, he appeared with a cheerful countenance; and ordered the fetters to be taken off. As Montezuma's spirits had sunk with unmanly defection, they now rose to indecent exultation; and he passed at once from the anguish of despair, to transports of joy and fondness towards his deliverers. The spirits of Montezuma were now subdued; and Cortez availed himself to the utmost of the power he had acquired over him.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who projected the expedition against Mexico?—2. When was it?—3. To whom was the command of it given?—4. With what force did Cortez attempt the conquest of Mexico?—5. Of what town did he lay the foundation on landing?—6. Who was the emperor of Mexico at this time?—7. What method did Cortez take to impress the Mexican officers with the power of the Spaniards?—8. What method did Montezuma adopt to conciliate Cortez?—9. To what desperate measure did Cortez and the Spaniards resort before marching for Mexico?—10. How is Mexico situated?—11. How did Cortez get possession of the person of Montezuma?—12. What was the amount of the presents they received?—13. Who was Quaalpopoca?—14. What was done with him?—15. What indignity was offered to Montezuma at the same time?

CONQUEST OF MEXICO.

1. CORTÉZ, although master of the Mexican capital, and of the person of the monarch, was now threatened with new danger. Velasques hearing of his success, and enraged at seeing his own authority rejected, fitted out from Cuba an armament of 18 vessels, having 80 cavalry, 800 infantry, and 12 pieces of cannon, under the command of Pamphilo de Narvaez, who had orders to seize Cortez and his principal officers, to send them to

him in irons, and to complete the conquest. } Cortez now saw himself in a more difficult situation than ever, being under the necessity of taking the field, not against unskilful Indians, but against an army, in courage and discipline equal to his own, in numbers far superior, and commanded by an officer of distinguished bravery. Cortez, aware of the dangers which presented themselves on all sides, endeavoured to accommodate matters with Narvaez; who treated his overtures with contempt, holding it impossible that Cortez should be able to resist his power.—Presumption always leads to mischievous consequences; in the present instance, it gave Cortez a complete victory over his enemies. Narvaez was wounded, made prisoner, and thrown into fetters; his army capitulated, and quietly submitted to their conquerors.

2. Cortez treated the vanquished in the most generous manner, giving them their choice, either of entering into his service, or of returning to Cuba. Most of them chose the former; and Cortez, when he least expected such fortune, saw no less than 1000 Spaniards arranged under his banner. With this reinforcement he marched back to Mexico, where his presence was extremely necessary. After so much indecision, the Mexicans now appeared to have resolved on the extermination of their enemies. They took their arms, and attacked the Spanish quarters in such formidable numbers, and with such undaunted courage, that although the artillery pointed against their tumultuous crowds, swept down multitudes at every discharge, the impetuosity of the attack did not abate. Fresh bodies of men incessantly rushed forward to occupy the places of the slain, and all the valour of the Spaniards was barely sufficient to prevent them from forcing their way into the fortifications.

3. Cortez was astonished at the desperate ferocity of a people, who seemed at first to submit so patiently to a foreign yoke. He made from the quarters two desperate sallies; but although numbers of the Mexicans fell, and part of the city was burned, he gained no permanent advantage; and besides being wounded himself,

lost twelve of his soldiers, a serious affair at that time, when, in his circumstances, the life of a Spaniard was so valuable. No resource was now left but to make use of the influence of the captive emperor, in order to quell the insurrection. Montezuma was brought, in regal pomp, to the battlement, and was compelled to address the people. But their fury rose above all restraint. Volleys of arrows and stones poured in upon the ramparts, and the unfortunate prince being wounded in the head by a stone, fell to the ground. The Mexicans, as soon as they saw their emperor fall, were struck with sudden remorse, and fled in precipitation and horror, as if they supposed themselves pursued by the vengeance of heaven for their crime. Montezuma was carried by the Spaniards to his apartments; but being now become weary of life, he tore the bandages from his wounds; and obstinately refusing to take any nourishment, expired in a few days.

4. The death of Montezuma loosed the Mexicans from the restraints, which their veneration for his person and dignity had imposed on their actions. A war of extermination was the immediate consequence; and after various attacks, in which the Mexicans showed the most daring resolution, and had even at one time seized Cortez, and were near carrying him off, the Spaniards found it necessary to retreat from a situation, in which they must be finally overwhelmed by the immense multitudes and incessant attacks of their enemies. This measure, however, was not effected without extreme difficulty. The Mexicans, astonished at the repeated efforts of Spanish valour, had now changed their system of hostility; and instead of incessant attacks, had adopted the measure of breaking the causeways, and barricading the streets, in order to cut off all communications between the Spaniards and the country.

5. A retreat from Mexico, however, being now a measure of absolute necessity, it was effected in the night, but not without great loss; for the Mexicans, from whom their preparations could not be concealed, had not only broken the bridges, and made breaches in the causeways, but attacked them on all sides from the

lake. All Mexico was in arms, and the lake was covered with canoes. The Spaniards, crowded together on the narrow causeway, were hemmed in on every side, and, wearied with slaughter, were unable to bear up against the weight of the torrent that poured in upon them; the confusion was universal; and the tremendous sounds of the warlike instruments of the Mexicans, with the shouts of their barbarian multitudes, gave additional horror to the scene. Cortez, with part of his soldiers, broke through the enemy; but numbers, overwhelmed by the multitudes of aggressors, were either killed on the causeway, or perished in the lake; while others, whom the Mexicans had taken alive, were dragged away in triumph to be sacrificed to the god of war.

6. In this fatal retreat, not less than half of the Spaniards, with above 2000 Ilascalans, were killed; and all the artillery, ammunition, and baggage, were completely lost. The whole empire was now in arms; and Cortez, having reviewed his shattered battalions, continued his retreat towards Ilascala, the only place where he could hope for a friendly reception. (He met with no opposition till he reached the valley of Otumba, where the whole force of the Mexicans was concentrated. When the Spaniards had reached the summit of an eminence, they saw the spacious valley through which they were obliged to pass, covered with an army that extended as far as the eye could reach, and appeared to be innumerable. At the sight of this immense multitude, the Spaniards were astonished, and even the boldest were inclined to despair.)

7. But Cortez, without allowing time for their fears to gain strength from reflection, briefly reminded them; that no alternative remained but to conquer or die, and instantly led them to the charge. The Mexicans waited their approach with inflexible firmness; and notwithstanding the superiority of European discipline and arms, the Spaniards, though successful in every attack, were ready to sink under the repeated efforts of innumerable multitudes. But Cortez observing the great standard of the empire, which was carried before the

Mexican general, and recollecting to have heard that on its fate the issue of every battle depended, put himself at the head of a few of his bravest officers, and pushed forward with an impetuosity that bore down all before it, to the place, where he saw it displayed. Cortez having brought the Mexican general to the ground with a stroke of his lance, the select body of his guards was broken, and the imperial standard was taken. The moment that the standard disappeared, the Mexicans were struck with an universal panic, and fled with precipitation.

8. The day after the battle of Otumba, the Spaniards reached the territories of the Ilascalans, their allies, who being implacable enemies to the Mexican name, continued faithful to Cortez in this reverse of his fortune. Here he had an interval of rest and tranquillity, that was extremely necessary for curing the wounded, and for recruiting the strength of his soldiers, exhausted by a long series of hardships and fatigues. During this suspension of military operations, Cortez recruited his battalions with 180 adventurers newly arrived from Spain and the islands, and obtained possession of some artillery, and ammunition, which had been sent by Velasques for the use of the army of Narvaez, and had been seized by the officers, whom Cortez had left in command at Vera Cruz. The Spanish general, having received these reinforcements, resolved to recommence the war, and attempt the reduction of Mexico. / But as he knew this to be impracticable, unless he could secure the command of the lake, he gave orders to prepare, in the mountains of Ilascaia, materials for constructing twelve brigantines, which were to be carried thither in pieces, ready to be put together and launched when their service should be found necessary.

9. On the 28th of December, 1520, Cortez began his second march toward Mexico, at the head of 550 Spanish foot, and 40 horse, with 10,000 Ilascalans, and a train of nine field pieces. The Mexicans, however, were not unprepared for his reception. On the death of Montezuma, their nobility, in whom the right of

electing the emperor appears to have been vested, had raised his brother (Quetlavaca) to the throne. This prince had displayed his courage and abilities in directing those attacks that obliged the Spaniards to retreat from his capital; and he took the most prudent and rigorous measures for preventing their return; but while he was arranging his plans of defence, with an unusual degree of foresight, he died of the small-pox, a disorder unknown in America until it was introduced by the Europeans. In his stead, the Mexicans elected Guatimozin, nephew and son-in-law of Montezuma, a young prince of distinguished reputation for abilities and valour.

10. The brigantines were now put together and launched, and every preparation was made for the siege. Operations were speedily commenced, and the Mexicans displayed valour hardly inferior to that with which the Spaniards attacked them. The siege was long, and attended with heavy loss on both sides. On land, on water, by night and by day, one furious conflict continually succeeded to another. At length it was resolved to make one desperate attack, and Cortez, with a portion of his brave comrades, pushed forward with an impetuosity, that bore pown all opposition, and continuing to gain ground, forced their way into the city. Guatimozin, seeing the Spaniards within his capital, gave the signal, and the priests in the principal temple struck the great drum consecrated to the god of war. No sooner did the Mexicans hear the doleful solemn sound, calculated to inspire them with a contempt of death and an enthusiastic ardour, than they rushed on the enemy with frantic rage.

11. The Spaniards, unable to resist men, urged on, no less by religious fury than hope of success, were obliged to retire with the greatest precipitation; and in the scene of confusion which ensued, six Mexican captains having seized upon Cortez, were carrying him off, when two of his officers rescued him at the expense of their own lives, but not till after he had received several dangerous wounds. Above sixty Spaniards

perished in this retreat out of Mexico; and what added to their misfortune, forty of them fell alive into the hands of an enemy never known to show mercy to a captive. Night coming on, every quarter of the city was illuminated, and the Mexican priests were busy in hastening the preparations for the death of the prisoners. It was a barbarous triumph—it was a horrid festival! And the Spaniards could distinctly hear the shrieks of those who were sacrificed, and thought they could distinguish each unhappy victim by the well known sound of his voice.

12. The Mexicans, elated with their victory, sallied out next morning to attack Cortez in his quarters. But they did not rely on the efforts of their own arms alone. They sent the heads of the Spaniards whom they had sacrificed, to the leading men in the adjacent provinces, and assured them that the god of war, appeased by the blood of their invaders, had declared with an audible voice, that in eight days time those hated enemies should be finally destroyed, and peace and prosperity established in the empire. A prediction uttered with such confidence gained universal credit. The zeal of those who had already declared against the Spaniards, augmented; and those who had hitherto been inactive, took arms with enthusiastic ardour to execute the decree of the gods. The Indian auxiliaries who had joined Cortez, abandoned his army as a race of men devoted to certain destruction. Even the fidelity of the Ilascalans was shaken, and the Spanish troops were left almost alone in their stations. Cortez immediately suspended all military operations for the period marked out by the oracle. Under cover of the brigantines, which kept the enemy at a distance, his troops lay on the lake in safety, and the fatal term expired without any disaster.

13. Many of his allies, ashamed of their own credulity, now returned to their station. Other tribes, judging that the gods, who had thus deceived the Mexicans, had decreed finally to withdraw their protection from them, joined his standard; and so striking was the levity

of this simple people, moved by every slight impression, that in a short time after such a defection of his confederates, Cortez saw himself at the head of a hundred and fifty thousand Indians. Notwithstanding this immense force, Cortez proceeded against the city with the greatest caution; nor could he make any impression, till the stores which Guatimozin had laid up, were exhausted by the multitudes which had crowded into the capital, to defend their sovereign, and the temples of their gods. Then people of all ranks felt the utmost distresses of famine. But under the pressure of so many and such various evils, the spirit of Guatimozin remained firm and unsubdued. He rejected with scorn every overture of peace from Cortez; and disdaining the idea of submitting to the oppressors of his country, determined not to survive its ruin. At the earnest solicitation of several of his chiefs he attempted to escape, but was taken by the Spaniards. When brought before Cortez he appeared with a dignified countenance—"I have done," said he, "what became a monarch. I have defended my people to the last extremity. Nothing now remains but to die. Take this dagger," laying his hand on one which Cortez wore, "plant it in my breast, and put an end to a life which can no longer be useful to my country."

14. As soon as the capture of the emperor was known, the resistance of the Mexicans ceased, and Cortez took possession of the small part of the city that was not destroyed. The Spaniards, as may be expected, were elated with joy, by the completion of their difficult conquest, and the expectation of sharing immense spoils. But in the latter respect, they were miserably disappointed. Guatimozin, foreseeing his impending fate, had caused all the riches amassed by his ancestors to be thrown into the lake, and, instead of becoming masters of the treasures of Montezuma, and the spoils of the temples, the conquerors could collect only a small booty, amidst the ruins of a general desolation. The Spaniards exclaimed loudly against their general, whom they suspected of appropriating the greatest part of the

spoils to his own use, as well as against Guatimozin, whom they accused of obstinately concealing his treasures. In order to allay this ferment, Cortez consented to a deed that sullied all the glory of his former actions. He suffered the royal captive, with his principal minister, to be put to the rack, in order to oblige him to discover the place where his riches were concealed. The unhappy monarch bore his sufferings with all the firmness of a hero, till Cortez, ashamed of so horrid a scene, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers. The unfortunate Guatimozin, however, was only reserved for further indignities. Some time afterwards, suspected by Cortez of forming a scheme to throw off the Spanish yoke, he and two other persons of the greatest eminence in the empire, were condemned to be hanged.)

15. The fate of the capital, as both parties had foreseen, decided that of the empire. The provinces submitted, one after another, to the conquerors. It was not without difficulty, however, that they were reduced to the form of a Spanish colony. And, to the everlasting infamy of the conquerors, they affected to consider every effort of the Mexicans to assert their own independence, as the rebellion of vassals against their sovereign, or the mutiny of slaves against their master. Under the sanction of those ill-founded maxims, they reduced the common people in the provinces to the most humiliating of all conditions, that of personal servitude. Their chiefs were punished with greater severity, and put to death by the most excruciating tortures. In almost every district of the Mexican empire, the progress of the Spanish arms is marked with blood, and with deeds so atrocious as disgrace the enterprising valour that conducted them to success. In the country of Panuco, sixty caziques, and four hundred nobles, were burnt at one time; and to complete the horror of the scene, the children and relatives of the wretched victims were assembled, and compelled to be spectators of their dying agonies.

QUESTIONS.

1. With what new dangers was Cortez threatened, after once being in possession of Montezuma and Mexico?—2. How did he treat the Spaniards that he conquered?—3. How many Spaniards had Cortez under his banner, on the accession of the army of Narvaez?—4. What was the end of Montezuma?—5. How did Cortez succeed in dispersing the Mexicans at the valley of Otumba?—6. What method did Cortez adopt, when at Ilascala, to secure the command of the lake?—7. Who was elected successor to Montezuma?—8. And who to Quetlevaca?—9. What circumstance for a time caused the allies of Cortez to forsake him?—10. What induced them to return to him?—11. How many Indians had he in his last attack on Mexico?—12. What disappointment did the Spaniards experience on the conquest of Mexico?—13. To what disgraceful act did Cortez submit to satisfy them?—14. What became of Guatimozin?

VICTORY.

WARR not to me the blast of fame,
That swells the trump of victory;
For to my ear it gives the name
Of slaughter and of misery.

Boast not so much of honour's sword;
Wave not so high the victor's plume;
They point me to the bosom gor'd—
They point me to the blood-stain'd tomb.

The boastful shout, the revel loud,
That strive to drown the voice of pain;
What are they, but the fickle crowd,
Rejoicing o'er their brethren slain?

And ah! through glory's fading blaze,
I see the cottage taper, pale,
Which sheds its faint and feeble rays,
Where unprotected orphans wail—

Where the sad widow weeping stands,
As if her day of hope was done—
Where the wild mother clasps her hands,
And asks the victor for her son—

Where the lone maid, in secret, sighs
 O'er the lost solace of her heart,
 As prostrate, in despair, she lies,
 And feels her tortur'd life depart!—

Where, midst that desolated land,
 The sire, lamenting o'er his son,
 Extends his weak and powerless hand,
 And finds its only prop is gone.

See, how the bands of war and woe
 Have rified sweet domestic bliss;
 And tell me, if your laurels grow,
 And flourish, in a soil like this!

WILLIAM WALLACE.

1. An obscure individual, of no high rank, and of still less fortune, rose to assert the honour and independence of his country, while the nobles and grandees of the kingdom, divided into factions, or adhering to the conqueror, seemed desirous of perpetuating its slavery. That strenuous patriot, but barbarous warrior, William Wallace, to whom many fabulous exploits are ascribed, but who in reality possessed all the valour of Achilles, joined to the prudence of Ulysses, and in these two respects merited the pen of a Homer to celebrate his actions, ventured, almost singly, to attack the colossal power of the conqueror. His band of troops was so inconsiderable, and his progress so rapid, that the boldness and success of his enterprise are equally astonishing. His army, however, was daily increased by the numbers whom success allured to his standard.

2. Having in a very short time recovered all the places which the English had held in their possession, except the single town of Berwick; his courage and conduct raised him so high in the esteem of the army, that he was, by a kind of military election, declared regent of the kingdom. Edward, who had engaged in a war

with France, and was at that time in Flanders, agreed with the French king to refer their difference to the arbitration of pope Boniface VIII; and returning home, turned all his attention to quell the Scottish revolt. Having entered Scotland, he advanced to Falkirk, where he met the enemy's army, conducted by Wallace, and an obstinate battle again decided the fate of the kingdom. Although Edward had two of his ribs broken by a fall from his horse, in the beginning of the engagement, he kept the field, and commanded with the same presence of mind as if no accident had happened. The contest was obstinate and bloody, but the issue was fatal to the Scots, whose ferocious, but undisciplined bands, were not a match for Edward's veteran troops.

3: Wallace was defeated with so prodigious a slaughter, that, according to some authors, the Scots lost 60,000 men, while others reduce the number to 10,000, exhibiting, in their contradictory narratives, another of those innumerable instances of the uncertainty of all circumstantial accounts, especially in regard to numerical statements. All that can with certainty be said, is, that the slaughter of the Scots was dreadful, and Edward's victory complete. Improving his advantages, he recovered all the places of strength, as rapidly as they had been lost; and may, on this occasion, be said to have a second time conquered Scotland. Wallace, with a few faithful followers, retired among the mountains and marshes, which nature had rendered inaccessible to armies; and, perceiving that his patriotic exertions inspired the nobles with jealousy, rather than emulation, he resigned the regency.)

4 (Comyn) was, on his resignation, declared regent, an office at that time of little consequence, as it gave him authority over only a small part of the kingdom, and a few scattered troops, who had escaped from the late battle. Through the mediation of (Philip), king of France, a truce for seven months was procured for such of the Scots as refused to submit to Edward's authority. This gave the new regent an opportunity of exciting the barons to shake off the English yoke. Roused by his exhortations, both the nobles and people immedi-

ately flew to arms. In a short time, all Scotland rose as one man, the whole mass of the inhabitants, in the towns, and in the country, taking arms the same day, and almost at the same hour. The English garrisons, being every where attacked at the same moment, in so furious a manner, that all resistance was ineffectual, had no other alternative than that of being put to the sword, or of surrendering on condition of immediately evacuating the kingdom.

5. This general revolt, which happened about the end of the year (1299) induced Edward to march early in the ensuing spring, and a third time to enter Scotland. The Scottish army, which consisted only of an ill-armed and undisciplined militia, not able to stand against Edward's veteran army, retired at his approach. The king, however, with his usual promptitude, pursued, overtook, and routed them, in a decisive engagement. The shattered remains of their forces retreated into the marshes, which were known only to the natives, and amidst which the conquerors durst not continue their pursuit. Despairing of any good effects from further resistance, the Scots had now recourse to negotiation and entreaties; but the inexorable Edward, rejecting all offers of reconciliation, and insisting on unconditional submission, they put themselves and their country under the papal protection, and made Boniface VIII. an offer of the sovereignty.

6. This produced a brief from the pope to Edward, exhibiting his own claim to the crown of Scotland. The English monarch assembled a parliament at Lincoln, for the purpose of deliberating on the pretensions of the Roman see. The papal brief was answered by a manifesto, asserting that England possessed, from time immemorial, the right of sovereignty over Scotland. This manifesto of the parliament, was followed by a memorial from the king, in justification of his measures; in which, if he could not equal the pope in sanctity, he resolved to outdo him in antiquity. Improving on that presented to the Scottish barons at Norham, in which he carried his claim no higher than Edward, the father of Athelstan, he now derived it from Brutus, the first

fabulous king of Britain, and traced it through the reigns of all the fictitious monarchs, with whose names and exploits Geoffrey of Monmouth had embellished his historical romance.

7. This letter being written in the most respectful manner, without any expressions that could be offensive to his holiness, the difference between Edward and the pope was accommodated, and, at the solicitation of the French king, the truce with the revolted Scots was prolonged. At its expiration, Edward sent Segrave, governor of Berwick, with a formidable force, to renew the war, and complete the reduction of Scotland. This general, apprehending no danger from the Scots, whom he considered as unable to make any resistance, divided his army into three columns, in order more completely to ravage the country. Meeting, however, unexpectedly, with the Scotch army, under the command of Comyn and Frazer, all the three bodies were successively defeated.

8. In consequence of this disaster, Edward, the next year, 1303, entered the fourth time into Scotland, with so numerous an army, that he penetrated to the extremities of the kingdom, and ravaged the country, without meeting with any considerable resistance, the Scots being unable to oppose so formidable a power. Wallace alone, with a body of troops, continually harassed him, and revenged the Scots on such of the English soldiers as happened to stray from the main body of the army. Stirling castle was besieged the whole winter, and was at last obliged to capitulate. By its surrender, Edward became master of all the fortified places, and, in this fourth expedition, completed his third conquest of Scotland.

9. A few determined patriots, however, retreating to places inaccessible to hostile approach, still held the conqueror's powers at defiance; but Wallace, the principal instigator and soul of revolt, being betrayed into the hands of the English, was tried, condemned, and executed, as guilty of treason. His head was, by Edward's command, placed upon London bridge, and his four quarters hung up in the four principal towns of

Scotland. Here, as in many other cases, we have an opportunity of considering the difficulty of making a just estimate of actions from the echoes of common fame, and the ipse dixit of partial or inconsiderate writers. This extraordinary severity to the Scottish patriot, is universally regarded as an indelible blemish on Edward's memory; but, if the cruelties imputed to Wallace had any foundation in fact, his punishment must be regarded as a just retribution.

10. Indeed, if the whole conduct of those conspicuous characters, who, in all ages and countries, have fallen by the hand of violence, could be minutely investigated, they would often be found, although less fortunate, little less criminal, than their oppressors; and the distributive justice of Providence would appear more impartially dealt, than superficial observers can perceive. But so often are we the dupes of misrepresentation, and so prone to hasty decision, that the illustrious victim of oppression and violence, who has himself sacrificed, at the shrine of his ambition, his avarice, or his resentment, thousands of inferior celebrity, appears in our eyes arrayed in the spotless robes of innocence. In contemplating his sufferings, we forget those which he has inflicted on others. Historians deplore his fate, and blazon his virtues, and, in commemorating his misfortunes, endeavour to excite an ill-judged compassion.

QUESTIONS.

1. To what office did Wallace's courage and success raise him?—2. What is said to have been the loss of the Scots at the battle of Falkirk?—3. What induced Wallace to resign the regency of Scotland?—4. Who was declared his successor?—5. Through whose mediation was a truce between England and Scotland effected?—6. In what year did the revolt of the Scots under Comyn take place?—7. When again subdued by Edward, under whose protection did the Scots place themselves?—8. In what year did Edward enter Scotland the fourth time?—9. What became of Wallace?

THE EXILE.

Nor to Siberia's land of frost
 Was this devoted exile sent;
 Nor Java's pestilential coast—
 Severer was his banishment.

Nought could the moral world afford
 To give him comfort, joy, or rest;
 The ban his vices had incurr'd
 Conscience approv'd within his breast.

The victim of a tyrant's power,
 Condemn'd in distant climes to roam,
 May sometimes find a happy hour,
 In hopes of pardon and of home.

But what bright hour on him shall beam,
 Who, bearing an internal curse,
 Is banish'd from his own esteem,
 To burning regions of REMORSE.

ROBERT BRUCE.

1. THE Scots, so many times vanquished, as often rebelled; no disasters could extinguish their martial genius, nor bring their independent minds to submit to a foreign yoke. Bruce, the rival of Baliol, being dead, his son, the famous Robert I, resolved to assert, with his sword, his claim to the crown of his ancestors. He then resided at London, as a prisoner at large; and, finding that Edward had received intelligence of his design, immediately made his escape. Being arrived in Scotland, and suspecting the fidelity of Comyn, with whom he had concerted his plan, and maintained a constant correspondence, he met a messenger, charged with letters from that nobleman to the king.

2. Having seized the messenger, and examined his despatches, his suspicions were confirmed. In consequence of this discovery, he repaired to Dumfries;

where, meeting with Comyn, he stabbed him with his own hand. Having thus drawn the sword, he had no other alternative than to throw away the scabbard, and, fully convinced that prompt and decisive measures could alone afford any hope of success or safety, he assumed the regal title, and was solemnly crowned at Scone. The new king of Scotland soon dispossessed the English of many of their fortified places; but the earl of Pembroke, having entered the kingdom, with a numerous army, defeated him in two successive engagements.

3. Bruce, being now reduced to the last extremity, was obliged to escape out of Scotland, and to take refuge in the Hebrides, while Edward, advancing with a powerful army, sent out detachments on all sides, to seize his adherents, to whom no mercy was shown. Three brothers of the new king fell on the scaffold. His queen being taken, and sent into England, was kept in close confinement. The bishops of Glasgow and St. Andrews would also have fallen a sacrifice to Edward's vengeance, had he not stood in awe of the pope. The countess of Buchan, sister of the earl of Fife, having assisted at Robert's coronation, was put in a wooden cage, and hung up on the walls of Berwick, as an object of ridicule to the people. Mary, the other sister, underwent the same fate at Roxburg. The earl of Athol, allied to the royal families, both of Scotland and England, and consequently Edward's relative, was distinguished from the rest, by the fatal honour of being hanged on a gallows of an extraordinary height. Dreadful instances of Edward's inexorable severity, and of the ferocious spirit of the times.

4. Edward, having taken a severe vengeance on such of Robert's adherents as had been unfortunate enough to fall into his hands, retired to Carlisle, where he summoned the last parliament of his reign, in order to deliberate on the means of securing the possession of Scotland, by finally uniting it to England. Shortly after, supposing the Scots completely disabled from making any further resistance, he left the command of the army to the earl of Pembroke, and returned to

London, in order to concert his future plans. Robert no sooner heard of his absence, than, sallying from his retreat, he assembled the scattered remains of his army, reinforced it with fresh supplies, which the Scotch barons brought from all quarters, and attacked the English general, whom he totally defeated and took prisoner. He then marched against the Earl of Gloucester, whom he obliged to retreat to the castle of Ayre, and afterwards took and dismantled several towns, that he might not be under the necessity of leaving garrisons, as well as in order to prevent them from affording any shelter to the English.

5. Edward, surprised and exasperated at this unexpected revolution, summoned all the barons of his realm to meet him at Carlisle, in the summer, A. D. 1307, under the penalty of forfeiting their fees, resolving to draw out the whole military force of his kingdom, and to render Scotland, from one extremity to the other, an entire scene of desolation. But divine Providence, having ordained that the union of the two kingdoms should at last be effected by more peaceable, as well as more equitable means, disappointed his sanguinary design. Being arrived at Carlisle, and ready to carry fire and sword into every corner of the devoted kingdom, he fell sick of a dysentery, and soon after died at Burgh on the sands, leaving the execution of his projects to his son and successor, to whom he gave strict charge never to grant peace or truce, till the final subjugation of Scotland should be accomplished.

6. Robert Bruce immediately prepared to take advantage of the consternation of the English, occasioned by the death of their king; but a violent fit of sickness prevented him from carrying his measures into effect. The new king of England, advancing as far as Dumfries, struck the whole kingdom with terror. Nothing could exceed the perplexity of the Scots on this occasion; their king being dangerously ill, and their forces, both in numbers and discipline, far inferior to those of the enemy. Edward's return into England, after leaving the command of the army to John Comyn, a Scotch baron, was a matter of surprise to both kingdoms; and

re-animated the hopes of the Scots, not less than it excited the murmurs of the English. Nothing, indeed, could be more strange than the conduct of Edward II., in thus relinquishing the conquest of Scotland, when the number and ardour of his troops, and king Robert's sickness, promised him almost certain success.

7. But the new king of England had not the warlike inclinations of his predecessor; and the blandishments of a court were, to him, more alluring than the hardships and hazards of a campaign. His appointment of Comyn to the command, was also a subject of offence to the army. This general, although the determined enemy of king Robert, was a Scot; and the English thought themselves dishonoured by the preference given to a foreigner. Disaster was the consequence of these discontents. Comyn, willing to take advantage of Robert's sickness, whom he supposed incapable of heading his army, advanced, in order to attack the Scots. The latter, though he found himself extremely weak, thought, that in so critical a juncture, flight or retreat might dishearten his troops, and eventually occasion the loss of his kingdom.

8. Having, therefore, mounted his horse, supported by two esquires, he drew up his army, and, with a composure that produced a wonderful effect, waited the approach of the enemy. Victory soon declared in his favour; and the defeat of the English was the more astonishing, as, besides being superior in numbers, they were the very same troops who had vanquished the Scots in so many engagements. But Edward I. was no more. After this retreat, Comyn retired into England, and Robert ravaged the whole county of Argyle, which still belonged to the English. Edward Bruce, his brother, also defeated another English army, in the county of Galloway; and, from that time, the Scots no longer dreaded the army of England.

9. The troubles of England, on account of Gaviston, prevented that court from paying any great attention to the affairs of Scotland. It is, however, said, that Edward II., in 1307, the second year of his reign, led an army in person into Scotland; but not having provided

for its subsistence, and finding the country laid waste before him, returned, without effecting any thing of importance. In two successive years, 1310 and 1311, Bruce had made two desultory expeditions into England, and carried off a great booty; and the year following, he recovered Perth, Lancrie, Dumfries, and Roxburgh. The Isle of Man voluntarily submitted to his dominion; and the castle of Edinburgh being carried by assault, he became master of all the fortified places, except Stirling castle, which was then the strongest in Scotland. The next year, 1313, he sent his brother to lay siege to that important fortress, which was vigorously assaulted, and as bravely defended. But Philip Mowbray, the governor, finding no methods taken for his relief, concluded an agreement with the Scots, by which he engaged to deliver up the place at the end of a year, if not sooner relieved by reinforcements from England.

10. This train of events, so favorable to the Scots, and so disastrous to their enemies, now threatened the complete expulsion of the English, and roused their king to decisive exertion. He therefore summoned all his vassals to meet him, with their troops. The general rendezvous was fixed at Newcastle upon Tyne; and so great was the alacrity of all, that Edward saw himself at the head of 100,000 men, English, Welsh, Gascons, and Irish. To this numerous army the king of Scotland could oppose no more than 30,000 men; but these were inured to war, and had frequently been victorious. Edward, entering the country without opposition, advanced towards Stirling, while Robert made every preparation to give him a vigorous reception. Considering the superiority of numbers with which he had to contend, he judiciously drew up his army on an advantageous ground, where craggy rocks on one of the flanks, and a deep morass on the other, prevented it from being surrounded. The Scots, being resolved to conquer or die, received the English with such steady and determined resolution, that they soon threw their numerous army into confusion, and routed them with a most dreadful slaughter.

11. This decisive battle was fought near a small river, called Bannockburn, on the 25th of July, A. D. 1314. And, since the memorable day of Hastings, England had never received so terrible a defeat. The different historians, as is ever the case, perplex us with the discordant accounts of this battle, and the loss there sustained. The earl of Gloucester, nephew of the king of England, with many other great lords of distinction, and, according to some, 700 knights, were left dead on the field; while others assert, that the whole number of English earls, barons, and knights, killed and taken prisoners, amounted to no more than 154. The Scotch historians make the whole loss of the English amount to 50,000, and say that the number of prisoners taken, was greater than that of the victorious army. The English, on the contrary, reduce the number of their slain to 10,000. Amidst the discordances of historical details, we might be eternally bewildered, if consequences did not elucidate those facts which contradictory evidence labours to obscure. In military history, especially, we have here a rule, which is almost infallible.

12. Reasoning on this principle, it is evident, that the victory of the Scots was decisive, and the loss of the English exceedingly great, as the latter made a precipitate retreat, not thinking themselves in safety until they reached York, and never more ventured to face the king of Scotland in the field. The Scots, on the contrary, acquired an evident superiority; and were, so long as the war continued, invariably successful. Robert, at last, besieged and took the strong frontier town of Berwick, and himself and his generals ravaged most of the northern borders of England. Not contented with his successes in Britain, he attempted the conquest of Ireland. Having sent his brother Edward thither, for that purpose, he afterwards followed in person; but finding, on his arrival, that his brother was defeated and slain in battle, by the archbishop of Dublin, general of the English army, or, as some say, taken prisoner, and hanged at Dundalk, he thought it best to de-

sist from the enterprise, in order to improve the advantages gained by his armies in Britain.

13. Since the conquering days of Edward I.; when the English were always victorious, the scales had surprisingly turned; and they found themselves utterly unable to check the progress of the Scottish king. In this disastrous state of affairs, Edward II. found himself obliged to have recourse to the pope, as the Scots had done in the days of his father, and with nearly the same success. He earnestly entreated his holiness to procure him a peace, or at least a truce with Scotland. John XXII., who then filled the papal chair, immediately complied with his request, and undertook to make peace between the kings of England and Scotland, not as a mediator, but in the character of sovereign arbitrator. For this purpose, he sent into England two legates, with a commission to conclude a peace between the two contending princes, and to compel both parties to accept it, under pain of excommunication and interdict.

14. The Scottish monarch, however, perceiving the condition of the treaty to be decidedly partial to England, rejected the papal arbitration. The legates, in consequence, pronounced sentence of excommunication against him, and laid an interdict on his kingdom. Robert, in the meanwhile, regardless of a censure which he considered as unjust, continued the war, and committed great ravages. He plundered and burnt Northallerton, Boroughbridge, Scarborough, and many other places, and almost desolated the northern parts of England. The English were every where beaten; and had, at the same time, the mortification to find the spiritual arms of Rome unsuccessful. After much solicitation, however, they obtained a truce for two years. This short period was no sooner elapsed, than Edward, who had just reduced the associated barons of his kingdom to submission, flattered himself with an expectation of equal success against his foreign enemies.

15. Having, therefore, made great preparations for the invasion of Scotland, in hopes of repairing his former losses by one grand effort, he entered that king-

dom, in the month of July, 1323 ; but, from his improvidence, and the precaution of his *enémies*, this, like his former expeditions, was only a series of disasters. Having neglected the proper means of furnishing his army with provisions, an imprudence which his former experience might have corrected, while the Scots, by removing or destroying every article of subsistence, had effectually deprived him of any supplies in their country, his ill-conducted measures rendered a retreat indispensably necessary. This, however, was only the beginning of his disasters. The English no sooner began their retreat, than the king of Scotland, appearing at the head of his army, pursued and overtook them at a place called Blackmore. Here they were not only defeated, with the loss of their baggage, but the whole army was almost totally dispersed, and Edward himself narrowly escaped.

16. The Scottish king, continuing his march, desolated the country with fire and sword, as far as to the very walls of York ; and, having burned the monastery of Ripon, and plundered the abbey of Beverly, returned to his kingdom with a great booty. Being desirous, however, of giving some respite to his kingdom, exhausted by those long and bloody wars, and of a reconciliation with the court of Rome, he consented to a truce for thirteen years. By this treaty, concluded A. D. 1323, a temporary stop was put to those ravages, which, during so long a time, had almost desolated so considerable a part of Great Britain. This period, notwithstanding the frequent recurrence of bloody wars between the two kingdoms, may be considered as the epoch of the complete restoration of the Scottish monarchy.

17. The space of time which elapsed from the death of Alexander III, A. D. 1285, to the conclusion of this truce, includes a period of thirty-eight years of indescribable calamity to the inhabitants of this island. Both Scotland and England had experienced the direful effects of a war, carried on with little regard to humanity. Almost the whole of the former, and a con

siderable part of the latter kingdom, had repeatedly been ravaged and devastated, with a ferocity of which a modern reader can scarcely form any idea. (The severity of Edward I.) excited a bitter animosity between the two nations, which mutual injuries and constant retaliation kept alive; while the ferocious manners of the age tinctured all their conduct with barbarity, and merciless devastation marked the footsteps of their armies. The events of this period, which, however unpleasing, is highly interesting to the now happy inhabitants of the united kingdom of Great Britain, exhibit the contrast between ancient and modern times.

18. During the latter part of the reign of Robert I, Scotland was in the zenith of her glory. The whole life of that monarch had been a scene of extraordinary exertion, attended with uncommon success. For this, however, he might perhaps be, in a great measure, indebted to the death of Edward I. at so momentous a crisis. Robert's abilities were certainly of the most eminent class; but, had his destiny compelled him to contend with the warlike genius and enterprising spirit of the first Edward, instead of the pusillanimity of his successor, it is impossible to say on which side success would have rested. In the whole series of history, the statesman, or the warrior, will find few more curious subjects of contemplation, than the revolution effected by the critical death of Edward, at the very commencement of Bruce's revolt.

QUESTIONS.

1. What caused Bruce to kill Comyn?—2. What was the fate of the earl of Athol?—3. To whom did Edward II. commit the command of the English army?—4. What was the respective number of the English and Scotch army, at the time of the battle near the river Bannockburn?—5. When was this battle fought?—6. What was the English loss in this battle?—7. To what did Edward II. have recourse for the support of his cause, besides fighting?—8. Did the pope succeed in reconciling the two kings?—9. When was Scotland in the zenith of her glory?—10. What excited the bitter animosity that existed between the English and the Scots at this time?

MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

1. On Tuesday, the seventh of February,* the two earls arrived at Fotheringay, and demanded access to the queen, read in her presence the warrant of execution, and required her to prepare to die next morning. Mary heard them to the end without emotion, and crossing herself in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost, "that soul," said she, "is not worthy the joys of heaven; which repines because the body must endure the stroke of the executioner; and though I did not expect that the queen of England would set the first example of violating the sacred person of a sovereign prince, I willingly submit to that which Providence has decreed to be my lot;" and laying her hand on a bible, which happened to be near her, she solemnly protested that she was innocent of that conspiracy which Babington had carried on against Elizabeth's life. She entreated with particular earnestness, that now in her last moments her almoner might be suffered to attend her; and that she might enjoy the consolation of those pious institutions prescribed by her religion. Even this favour, which is usually granted to the vilest criminal, was absolutely denied.

2. Her attendants, during this conversation, were bathed in tears, and though overawed by the presence of the two earls, with difficulty suppressed their anguish; but no sooner did Kent and Shrewsbury withdraw, than they ran to their mistress and burst out into the most passionate expressions of tenderness and sorrow. Mary, however, not only retained perfect composure of mind herself, but endeavoured to moderate their excessive grief; and falling on her knees, with all her domestics round her, she thanked heaven that her sufferings were now so near an end, and prayed that she might be enabled to endure what still remained with decency and with fortitude. The greater part of the evening she employed in settling her worldly affairs. She wrote her testament with her own hand. Her money, her jewels, and her clothes, she distributed among her servants according to their

rank or merit. She wrote a short letter to the king of France, and another to the duke of Guise, full of tender but magnanimous sentiments, and recommended her soul to their prayers, and her afflicted servants to their protection.

3. At supper she ate temperately, as usual, and conversed not only with ease but with cheerfulness; she drank to every one of her servants, and asked their forgiveness if ever she failed in any part of her duty towards them. At her wonted time she went to bed, and slept calmly for a few hours. Early in the morning she retired into her closet, and employed a considerable time in devotion. At eight o'clock the high sheriff and his officers entered her chamber, and found her still kneeling at the altar. She immediately started up, and with a majestic mien, and a countenance undismayed, and even cheerful, advanced towards the place of execution, leaning on two of Paulet's attendants. She was dressed in a mourning habit, but with an elegance and splendour which she had long laid aside, except on a few festival days. An *Agnus Dei* hung by a promander chain at her neck; her beads at her girdle; and in her hands she carried a crucifix of ivory.

4. At the bottom of the stairs, the two earls, attended by several gentlemen from the neighbouring counties, received her, and there sir Andrew Melvil, the master of her household, who had been secluded for some weeks from her presence, was permitted to take his last farewell. At the sight of a mistress whom he tenderly loved, in such a situation, he melted into tears; and as he was bewailing her condition, and complaining of his own hard fate, in being appointed to carry the account of such a mournful event into Scotland, Mary replied, "Weep not, good Melvil, there is at present great cause for rejoicing. Thou shalt this day see Mary Stuart delivered from all her cares, and such an end put to her tedious sufferings, as she has long expected. Bear witness that I die constant in my religion; firm in my fidelity towards Scotland; and unchanged in my affection to France. Commend me to my son. Tell him I have done nothing injurious to his kingdom, to his honour, or

to his rights; and God forgive all those who have thirsted without cause for my blood."

5. With much difficulty, and after many entreaties, she prevailed on the two earls to allow (Melvil, together with three of her men-servants and two of her maids) to attend her to the scaffold. It was erected in the same hall where she had been tried, raised a little above the floor, and covered, as well as a chair, the cushion, and block, with black cloth. Mary mounted the steps with alacrity, beheld all this apparatus of death with an unaltered countenance, and signing herself with the cross, she sat down in the chair. Beale read the warrant for execution with a loud voice, to which she listened with a careless air, and like one occupied in other thoughts. Then the dean of Peterborough began a devout discourse, suitable to her present condition, and offered up prayers to heaven in her behalf; but she declared she could not in conscience hearken to the one nor join in the other; and kneeling down repeated a Latin prayer. When the Dean had finished his discourse, she with an audible voice, and in the English tongue, recommended unto God the afflicted state of the church, and prayed for prosperity to her son, and for a long life and peaceable reign to Elizabeth. She declared that she hoped for mercy only through the death of Christ, at the foot of whose image she now willingly shed her blood; and lifting up and kissing the crucifix, she thus addressed it: "As thy arms, O Jesus, were extended on the cross; so with the outstretched arms of thy mercy receive me, and forgive my sins."

6. She then prepared for the block by taking off her veil and upper garments; and one of the executioners rudely endeavouring to assist, she gently checked him and said with a smile, that she had not been accustomed to undress before so many spectators, nor to be served by such valets. With calm but undaunted fortitude, she laid her neck on the block; and while one executioner held her hands, the other at the second stroke, cut off her head, which falling out of its attire, discovered her hair already grown quite grey with cares and sorrows. The executioner held it up still streaming

with blood, and the dean crying out, "So perish all queen Elizabeth's enemies," the earl of Kent alone answered amen. The rest of the spectators continued silent, and drowned in tears; being incapable, at that moment, of any other sentiments but those of pity or admiration.

7. Such was the tragical death of Mary, queen of Scots, after a life of forty-four years and two months, almost nineteen years of which she passed in captivity. All contemporary authors agree in ascribing to Mary the utmost beauty of countenance, and elegance of shape, of which the human form is capable. Her hair was black, though according to the fashion of that age she frequently wore borrowed locks, and of different colours. Her stature was of a height that rose to the majestic. She danced, she walked, and rode with equal grace. Her taste for music was just, and she both sung and played upon the lute with uncommon skill. Towards the close of her life, long confinement and the coldness of the houses in which she had been imprisoned, brought on a rheumatism, which often deprived her of the use of her limbs. No man, says Brantome, ever beheld her person without admiration and love, or will read her history without sorrow.

8. To all the charms of beauty, and the utmost elegance of external form, she added those accomplishments which render their impression irresistible. Polite, affable, insinuating, sprightly, and capable of speaking and of writing with equal ease and dignity. Sudden, however, and violent in all her attachments; because her heart was warm and unsuspecting. Impatient of contradiction; because she had been accustomed from her infancy to be treated as a queen. No stranger, on some occasions, to dissimulation; which, in that perfidious court where she received her education, was reckoned among her necessary arts of government. Not insensible of flattery, or unconscious of that pleasure with which almost every woman beholds the influence of her own beauty. Formed with the qualities which we love, not with the talents that we admire; she was an agreeable woman, rather than an illustrious queen.

The vivacity of her spirit not sufficiently tempered with sound judgment, and the warmth of her heart, which was not at all times under the restraint of discretion, betrayed her both into errors and into crimes.

9. None of her women were suffered to come near her dead body, which was carried into a room adjoining to the place of execution, where it lay for some days, covered with a coarse cloth torn from a billiard table. The block, the scaffold, the aprons of the executioners, and every thing stained with her blood, were reduced to ashes. Not long after, Elizabeth appointed her body to be buried in the Cathedral of Peterborough with royal magnificence. But this vulgar artifice was employed in vain; the pageantry of a pompous funeral did not efface the memory of those injuries which laid Mary in her grave. James, soon after his accession to the English throne, ordered her body to be removed to Westminster abbey, and to be deposited among the monarchs of England.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was Mary of Scots beheaded?—2. Who attended her at her execution?—3. What clergyman attended her?—4. Was she pleased with his services?—5. What was her age?—6. How much of her life had she passed in prison?

44 . 7

FALL OF JERICHO.

Who is that chief, already taught to urge
The battle stream, and roll its darkest surge,
Whose army marches through retiring seas,
Whose gory banner, spreading on the breeze,
Unfolds o'er Jericho's devoted towers,*
And, like the storm o'er Sodom, redly lowers?
The moon can answer; for she heard his tongue,
And cold and pale o'er Ajalon she hung.†
The sun can tell—O'er Gibeon's vale of blood,
Curving their beamy necks, his coursers stood,

* Joshua vi. 20.

† Joshua x. 12, 13.

Held by that hero's arm, to light his wrath,
 And roll their glorious eyes upon his crimson path.
 What mine, exploding, rends that smoking ground?
 What earthquake spreads those smouldering ruins
 round?

The sons of Levi, round that city, bear
 The ark of God, their consecrated care,
 And, in rude concert, each returning morn,
 Blow the long trump, and wind the curling horn.
 No blackening thunder smok'd along the wall—
 No earthquake shook it.—Music wrought its fall.

CHARLES I. OF ENGLAND.

1. From the sixth to the twentieth of January was spent in making preparations for his extraordinary trial. The court of justice consisted of an hundred and thirty-three persons named by the commons; but of these, never above seventy met upon the trial. The members were chiefly composed of the principal officers of the army, most of them of very mean birth, together with some of the lower house, and a few citizens of London. (Bradshaw,) a lawyer, was chosen president; Coke was appointed solicitor for the people of England; Dorislaus, Steele, and Aske, were named assistants. The court sat at Westminster hall.

2. The king was now conducted from Windsor to St. James', and the next day was brought before the high court to take his trial. When he was brought forward, he was conducted by the mace-bearer to a chair placed within the bar. Though long detained a prisoner, and now produced as a criminal, he still sustained the dignity of a king; he surveyed the members of the court with a stern, haughty air, and without moving his hat sat down, while the members were also covered. His charge was then read by the solicitor, accusing him of having been the cause of all the bloodshed that followed since the commencement of the war; at that part of the charge, he could not suppress a smile of contempt and indignation. After the charge was finished,

Bradshaw directed his discourse to the king, and told him, that the court expected his answer/

3. The king, with great temper, entered upon his defence, by declining the authority of the court. (He represented, that, having been engaged in treaty with his two houses of parliament, and having finished almost every article, he expected a different treatment from that he now received.) He perceived, he said, no appearance of an upper house, which was necessary to constitute a just tribunal. That he was himself the king and fountain of law; and consequently could not be tried by laws to which he had never given his assent; that having been entrusted with the liberties of the people, he would not now betray them, by recognizing a power founded in usurpation; that, he was willing, before a proper tribunal, to enter into the particulars of his defence; but that before them, he must decline any apology for innocence, lest he should be considered the betrayer of, and not a martyr for, the constitution.

4. Bradshaw, in order to support the authority of that court, insisted that they had received their power from the people, the source of all right. / He pressed the prisoner not to decline the authority of the court, which was delegated by the commons of England; and interrupted and over-ruled the king in his attempts to reply. In this manner was the king three times produced before the court; and as often persisted in declining its jurisdiction. The fourth and last time he was brought before the self-created tribunal, as he was proceeding thither, he was insulted by the soldiers and the mob, who exclaimed, "Justice! justice! execution! execution!" but he continued undaunted. His judges having now examined some witnesses, by whom it was proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces commissioned by parliament, they pronounced sentence against him.

5. The conduct of the king under all these instances of low bred malice, was great, firm, and equal; in going through the hall from this execrable tribunal, the soldiers and rabble were again instigated to cry out jus-

tice and execution. They reviled him with the most bitter reproaches. Amongst other insults, one miscreant presumed to spit in the face of his sovereign. He patiently bore their insults. "Poor souls," cried he, "they would treat their generals in the same manner for sixpence." Those of the populace who still retained the feelings of humanity, expressed their sorrow in sighs and tears. A soldier, more compassionate than the rest, could not help imploring a blessing upon his royal head. An officer, overhearing him, struck the honest sentinel to the ground before the king, who could not help saying, that the punishment exceeded the offence.

6. At his return to Whitehall, he desired the permission of the house to see his children, and to be attended in his private devotions by doctor Juxon, late bishop of London. These requests were granted, and also three days to prepare for the execution of the sentence. All that remained of his family, now in England, were the princess Elizabeth, and the duke of Gloucester, a child of about three years of age. After many seasonable and sensible exhortations to his daughter, he took his little son into his arms, and embracing him, "My child," said he, "they will cut off thy father's head—yes, they will cut off my head, and make thee a king. But mark what I say, thou must not be a king as long as thy brothers, Charles and James, are alive. They will cut off their heads when they can take them, and thy head too, at last; and therefore, I charge thee, do not be made a king by them." The child, bursting into tears, replied, "I will be torn in pieces first."

7. Every night, during the interval between his sentence and execution, the king slept sound as usual; though the noise of the workmen employed in framing the scaffold, continually resounded in his ears. The fatal morning being at last arrived, he rose early, and calling one of his attendants, he bade him employ more than usual care in dressing him, and preparing him for so great and joyful a solemnity. The street before Whitehall was the place destined for his execution; for it was supposed that this would increase the severity

of his punishment. He was led through the banqueting house to the scaffold, adjoining that edifice, attended by his friend and servant, bishop Juxon, a man endowed with the same mild and steady virtues with his master. The scaffold which was covered with black, was guarded by a regiment of soldiers, under the command of colonel Tomlinson; and on it were to be seen the block and axe, and two executioners in masks. The people, in great crowds, stood at a great distance, in dreadful expectation of the event.

8. The king, however, remained calm amidst all these awful preparations; and, as he could not expect to be heard by the people at a distance, he addressed himself to the few who stood round him. He there justified his innocence in the late fatal war; and observed, that he had not taken arms till after the parliament had shown him the example. That he had no other object in his warlike preparations, than to preserve that authority entire, which had been transmitted to him by his ancestors; but, though innocent towards his people, he acknowledged the equity of his execution in the eyes of his Maker. He owned that he was justly punished for having consented to the execution of an unjust sentence upon the earl of Strafford. He forgave all his enemies; exhorted the people to return to their obedience, and acknowledge his son as his successor; and signified his attachment to the protestant religion, as professed in the church of England. So strong was the impression his dying words made upon the few who could hear him, that colonel Tomlinson himself, into whose care he had been committed, acknowledged himself a convert.

9. While he was thus preparing himself for the block, bishop Juxon called out to him, "There is, sir, but one stage more; which, though turbulent and troublesome, is yet a very short one. It will soon carry you a great way. It will soon carry you from earth to heaven; and there you shall find, to your great joy, the prize to which you hasten; a crown of glory." "I go," replied the king, "from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can have place." "You

exchange," the bishop added, "a temporal for an eternal crown; a good exchange." Charles having taken off his cloak, he delivered his George to the prelate, pronouncing the word "remember." Then he laid his head upon the block, and stretching out his hands as a signal, one of the executioners severed his head from his body at a blow; while the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "This is the head of a traitor." The spectators testified their horror at that sad spectacle, in sighs, tears, and lamentations; the tide of their duty and affection began to return, and each blamed himself either with active disloyalty to his king, or a passive compliance with his destroyers.

10. Charles was executed (January 30, 1649, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. He was of middling stature, robust, and well proportioned. His visage was pleasing, but melancholy; and it is probable that the continual troubles in which he was involved might have made that impression on his countenance. As for his character, the reader will deduce it with more precision and satisfaction to himself from the detail of his conduct, than from any summary given of it by the historian.

QUESTIONS.

1. How many persons constituted the court that tried king Charles?—2. What description of persons chiefly composed this court?—3. Who was appointed president?—4. On what ground did the king decline making his defence?—5. On what ground did Bradshaw maintain the legal jurisdiction of the court?—6. What was proved against the king in his trial?—7. What was the treatment which he received from the soldiers?—8. What was the conduct of the king under this treatment?—9. By whom was he attended in his devotions, after being condemned?—10. Who commanded the regiment that guarded the scaffold on which he was executed?—11. Was he apparently resigned to his fate?—12. Did he acknowledge the justice of the sentence which condemned him to death?—13. At what time was king Charles executed?—14. How old was he then?—15. How long had he reigned?

THE RUINS.

I've seen, in twilight's pensive hour,
 The moss-clad dome, the mouldering tower,
 In awful ruin stand;
 That dome, where grateful voices sung,
 That tower, whose chiming music rung
 Majestically grand!

I've seen, 'mid sculptur'd pride, the tomb
 Where heroes slept, in silent gloom,
 Unconscious of their fame;
 Those who, with laurell'd honours crown'd,
 Among their foes spread terror round,
 And gain'd—an empty name!

I've seen, in death's dark palace laid,
 The ruins of a beauteous maid,
 Cadaverous and pale!
 That maiden who, while life remain'd,
 O'er rival charms in triumph reign'd
 The mistress of the vale.

I've seen, where dungeon damp's abide,
 A youth, admir'd in manhood's pride,
 In morbid fancy rave;
 He, who, in reason's happier day,
 Was virtuous, witty, nobly gay,
 Learn'd, generous and brave.

Nor dome, nor tower, in twilight shade,
 Nor hero fallen, nor beauteous maid,
 To ruin all consign'd—
 Can with such pathos touch my breast,
 As (on the maniac's form impress'd)
 The ruins of the MIND!

GUN-POWDER TREASON.

1. THE Roman catholics had expected great favour and indulgence on the accession of James I., both as a

descendant of Mary, a rigid catholic, and also as having shewn some partiality to that religion in his youth. But they soon discovered their mistake; and were at once surprised and enraged to find James, on all occasions, express his resolution of strictly executing the laws enacted against them, and of persevering in the conduct of his predecessor. This declaration determined them upon more desperate measures; and they at length formed the resolution of destroying the king and both houses of parliament at a blow. The scheme was first broached by Robert Catesby, a gentleman of good parts and ancient family, who conceived that a train of gun-powder might be so placed under the parliament house, as to blow up the king and all the members at once.

2. How horrid soever this contrivance might appear, yet every member seemed faithful and secret in the league; and about two months before the sitting of parliament, they hired a house in Percy's name, adjoining to that in which the parliament was to assemble. Their first intention was to bore a way under the parliament-house, from that which they occupied; and they set themselves laboriously to the task; but when they had pierced the wall, which was three yards in thickness, on approaching the other side, they were surprised to find that the house was vaulted underneath, and that a quantity of coals was usually deposited there. From their disappointment on this account, they were soon relieved by information that the coals were then selling off, and that the vaults would then be let to the highest bidder. They, therefore, seized the opportunity of hiring the place, and bought the remaining quantity of coals with which it was stored, as if for their own use.

3. The next thing done was to convey thither thirty-six barrels of gun-powder, which had been purchased in Holland, and the whole was covered with the coals, and with faggots, brought for that purpose. Then the doors of the cellar were boldly flung open, and every body admitted as if it contained nothing dangerous. Confident of success, they proceeded to plan the re-

maining part of their project. The king, the queen, and prince Henry, the king's eldest son, were all expected to be present at the opening of parliament. The king's second son, by reason of his tender age, would be absent, and it was resolved that Percy should seize or assassinate him. The princess Elizabeth, a child likewise, was kept at lord Harrington's house, in Warwickshire; and sir Edward Digby was to seize her, and immediately proclaim her queen.

4. The day for the sitting of parliament now approached. Never was treason more secret, or ruin more apparently inevitable; the hour was expected with impatience, and the conspirators gloried in their meditated guilt. The dreadful secret, though communicated to above twenty persons, had been religiously kept during the space of nearly a year and a half; but when all the motives of pity, justice, and safety, were too weak to induce a disclosure, a remorse of private friendship saved the kingdom. Sir Henry Percy, one of the conspirators, conceived a design of saving the life of lord Mounteagle, his intimate friend and companion, who was also a decided catholic. Accordingly about ten days before the meeting of parliament, this nobleman, without himself knowing the writer, received the following letter—

5. "My lord, out of the love I bear to some of your friends, I have a care of your preservation. Therefore I would advise you, as you value your life, to devise some excuse to shift off your attendance in this parliament. For God and man have concurred to punish the wickedness of the times. And think not lightly of this advertisement; but retire yourself into the country, where you may expect the event in safety. For, though there be no appearance of any stir, yet, I say they will receive a terrible blow this parliament, and yet they shall not see who hurts them. This counsel is not to be contemped, because it may do you good, and can do you no hurt—for the danger is past, as soon as you have burnt this letter. And I hope God will give you grace to make a good use of it, unto whose holy protection I commend you."

6. The contents of this mysterious letter surprised and puzzled the nobleman to whom it was addressed; and though inclined to think a foolish attempt to affright and ridicule him, yet he judged it safest to carry it to lord Salisbury, secretary of state. Lord Salisbury too was inclined to give little attention to it, yet thought to lay it before the king in council, who came to town a few days after. None of the council were able to make any thing of it, although it appeared rather serious and alarming. In this universal agitation, between doubt and apprehension, the king was the first who penetrated the meaning of this dark epistle. He concluded that some sudden danger was preparing with gun-powder; and it was thought advisable to inspect all the vaults below the houses of parliament. This care belonged to the earl of Suffolk, lord chamberlain, who purposely delayed the search till the day before the meeting of parliament.

7. He now discovered and seized (Guy Fawkes,) actually engaged in the terrible enterprise, having just disposed every part of the train for its taking fire next morning, the matches and other combustibles being found in his pockets. The whole of the design was now discovered; but the atrociousness of his guilt, and the despair of pardon, inspiring him with resolution, he told the officers of justice, with an undaunted air, that had he blown them and himself up together, he had been happy. Before the council, he displayed the same intrepid firmness, mixed even with scorn and disdain, refusing to discover his associates, and shewing no concern but for the failure of his enterprise. But his bold spirit was at length subdued; being confined to the Tower for two or three days, and the rack just shewn him, his courage, fatigued with so long an effort, at last failed him, and he made a full discovery of all his accomplices.

8. Catesby, Percy, and the conspirators who were in London, hearing that Fawkes was arrested, fled with all speed to Warwickshire, where sir Edward Digby, relying on the success of the plot, was already in arms. But the country soon began to take the alarm, and

wherever they turned, they found a superior force ready to oppose them. In this exigence, beset on all sides, they resolved, to about the number of eighty persons, to fly no further, but made a stand at a house in Warwickshire, to defend it to the last, and sell their lives as dearly as possible.

9. But even this miserable consolation was denied them; a spark of fire happening to fall among some gun-powder that was laid to dry, it blew up, and so maimed the principal conspirators, that the survivors resolved to open the gate, and sally out against the multitude that surrounded the house. Some were instantly cut to pieces. Catesby, Percy, and Winter, standing back to back, fought long and desperately, till in the end the two first fell covered with wounds, and Winter was taken alive. Those that survived the slaughter were tried and convicted; several fell by the hands of the executioner, and others experienced the king's mercy. The Jesuits, Garnet and Oldcorn, who were privy to the plot, suffered with the rest; and notwithstanding the atrociousness of their treason, Garnet was considered by his party as a martyr, and miracles were said to have been wrought by his blood.

QUESTIONS.

1. On what account did the Catholics expect the favour and indulgence of James I.?—2. Were their expectations realized?—3. What measure of revenge did they attempt?—4. How was the plan formed to destroy the king and parliament?—5. How was the gun-powder treason discovered?—6. Which one of the conspirators was seen and seized in preparing the train of powder?—7. What induced him to reveal the names of his accomplices?

DISAPPOINTED AMBITION.

1. In full blown dignity, see Wolsey stand,
Law in his voice, and fortune in his hand;
To him the church, the realm, their powers consign,
Through him the rays of regal bounty shine;
Turn'd by his nod the stream of honour flows,

His smile alone security bestows—
 Still to new heights his restless wishes tow'r;
 Claim leads to claim, and pow'r advances pow'r;
 Till conquest unresisted ceas'd to please,
 And rights submitted, left him none to seize.

2. At length his sov'reign frowns, the train of state
 Mark the keen glance, and watch the sign to hate;
 Where'er he turns, he meets a stranger's eye,
 His suppliants scorn him, and his followers fly;
 Now drops at once the pride of awful state,
 The golden canopy, the glittering plate,
 The regal palace, the luxurious board,
 The liv'ried army, and the menial lord.
 With age, with cares, with maladies oppress'd,
 He seeks the refuge of monastic rest.

3. Grief aids disease, remember'd folly stings,
 And his last sighs reproach the faith of kings;
 Speak thou, whose thoughts at humble peace repine,
 Shall Wolsey's wealth, with Wolsey's end, be thine?
 Or liv'st thou now, with safer pride content,
 The wisest justice on the banks of Trent?
 For why did Wolsey, near the steeps of fate,
 On weak foundations raise th' enormous weight?
 Why, but to sink beneath misfortune's blow,
 With louder ruin to the gulfs below?
 What gave great Villiers to th' assassin's knife,
 And fix'd disease on Harley's closing life?
 What murder'd Wentworth, and what exil'd Hyde,
 By kings protected, and to kings ally'd?
 What, but their wish indulg'd, in courts to shine,
 And pow'r too great to keep or to resign?

THE AGED PRISONER.

1. Upon the accession of Louis sixteenth to the throne, the ministers then in office, moved by humanity, began their administration with an act of clemency and justice. They inspected the registers of the Bastile, and set

many prisoners at liberty. Among them, was an old man who had groaned in confinement for (forty-seven years) between four thick and cold stone-walls. Hardened by adversity, which strengthens both the mind and constitution, when they are not overpowered by it, he had resisted the horrors of his long imprisonment with an invincible and manly spirit.

2. His locks, white, thin, and scattered, had almost acquired the rigidity of iron; whilst his body, environed for so long a time by a coffin of stone, had borrowed from it a firm and compact habit. The narrow door of his tomb, turning upon its grating hinges, opened not as usual by halves, and an unknown voice announced his liberty, and bade him depart. Believing this to be a dream, he hesitated; but at length rose up and walked forth with trembling steps, amazed at the space he traversed. The stairs of the prison, the halls, the court, seemed to him vast, immense, and almost without bounds.

3. He stopped from time to time, and gazed around like a bewildered traveller. His vision was with difficulty reconciled to the clear light of day. He contemplated the heavens as a new object. His eyes remained fixed, and he could not even weep. Stupified with the newly acquired power of changing his position, his limbs, like his tongue, refused, in spite of his efforts, to perform their office. At length he got through the formidable gate.

4. When he felt the motion of the carriage, which was prepared to transport him to his former habitation, he screamed out, and uttered some inarticulate sounds; and as he could not bear this new movement, he was obliged to descend. Supported by a benevolent arm, he sought out the street where he had formerly resided; he found it, but no trace of his house remained; one of the public edifices occupied the spot where it had stood.

5. He saw nothing which brought to his recollection, either that particular quarter, the city itself, or the objects with which he was formerly acquainted. The houses of his nearest neighbours, which were fresh in

his memory, had assumed a new appearance. In vain were his looks directed to all the objects around him; he could discover nothing of which he had the smallest remembrance. Terrified, he stopped and fetched a deep sigh. To him what did it import, that the city was peopled with living creatures? None of them were alive to him; he was unknown to all the world, and he knew nobody; and whilst he wept, he regretted his dungeon.

6. At the name of the Bastile, which he often pronounced and even claimed as an asylum, and the sight of his clothes which marked his former age, the crowd gathered around him; curiosity, blended with pity, excited their attention. The most aged asked him many questions, but had no remembrance of the circumstances which he recapitulated. At length accident brought to his way an ancient domestic, now a superannuated porter, who, confined to his lodge for fifteen years, had barely sufficient strength to open the gate. Even he did not know the master he had served; but informed him that grief and misfortune had brought his wife to the grave thirty years before; that his children were gone abroad to distant climes, and that of all his relations and friends, none now remained.

7. This recital was made with the indifference which people discover for the events long passed and almost forgotten. The miserable man groaned, and groaned alone. The crowd around, offering only unknown features to his view, made him feel the excess of his calamities even more than he would have done in the dreadful solitude which he had left. Overcome with sorrow, he presented himself before the minister, to whose humanity he owed that liberty which was now become a burden to him. Bowing down, he said, "Restore me again to that prison from which you have taken me. I cannot survive the loss of my nearest relations; of my friends; and in one word, of a whole generation. Is it possible in the same moment to be informed of this universal destruction and not to wish for death?"

8. "This general mortality, which to others comes slowly and by degrees, has to me been instantaneous,

No. 3.



LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS AT PLYMOUTH.

the operation of a moment. Whilst secluded from society, I lived with myself only; but here I can neither live with myself, nor with this new race, to whom my anguish and despair appear only as a dream." The minister was melted; he caused the old domestic to attend this unfortunate person, as only he could talk to him of his family.

9. This discourse was the single consolation which he received; for he shunned intercourse with the new race, born since he had been exiled from the world; and he passed his time in the midst of Paris in the same solitude as he had done whilst confined in a dungeon for almost half a century. But the chagrin and mortification of meeting no person who could say to him, "We were formerly known to each other," soon put an end to his existence.

QUESTIONS.

1. In whose reign was there a general release of prisoners from the French Bastille?—2. How long had the aged prisoner ben confined?—3. What was the reason of his wishing to be again returned to the Bastille?

PLYMOUTH COLONY.

1. NEW ENGLAND owes its origin, as a civil and christian community, to a congregation of Puritans under the pastoral care of the Rev. John Robinson. Not being tolerated in the exercise of that religious liberty which they reckoned necessary for their spiritual edification and growth in grace, they resolved on emigration to some foreign country. Their views were, at once, directed to Holland, where the spirit of commerce had dictated a free toleration in matters of faith and worship. Accordingly, in 1607, a part of the congregation sailed for Amsterdam, where, in the following year, they were joined by their pastor and such others as had been obliged to remain behind. But from Amsterdam they soon judged it advisable to remove to Leyden. In this place they continued about eleven years, and experienced much satisfaction in the enjoyment of their christian privileges.

2 But a continuance and permanent settlement in Holland was now viewed as defeating, in a great measure, the object of leaving their native country. They were not joined in Leyden by so many of their English friends as they expected, and many of such as did come over, only speculated in trade, and added but little to their spiritual prospects. A continuance, therefore, in Holland, would finally be the means of scattering their families and descendants; the old people would die, and the young ones would soon be amalgamated with the people of their adopted country, and so the great object of preserving and promoting their peculiar state of church polity would be lost. Another removal was considered a duty; and after much inquiry, America, the newly discovered world, was fixed upon as an asylum.

3. It was determined, that a part of them should go and prepare the way for others; and that if a major part should consent to go, the pastor should go with them; otherwise he should remain in Holland. It was found, on examination, that though a major part was willing to go, yet they could not get ready in season; therefore, the greater number being obliged to stay, they required Mr. Robinson to stay with them. Mr. Brewster, the ruling elder, was appointed to go with the minority, who were to be an absolute church of themselves, as well as those who should stay, with this proviso, "that as they should go over or return, they should be reputed as members without further dismission or testimonial." The others were to follow as soon as possible.

4. On the 6th of September, 1620, the company, consisting of *(one hundred and one souls)*, exclusive of the crew, proceeded on their voyage in the ship *May-flower*, commanded by Capt. Jones. The former part of their passage was attended with nothing remarkable, but the latter exposed them to frequent and great perils. "On the 9th of November they made land, which proved to be the sandy cliffs of Cape Cod." Not the land to which they, in their own imagination, had been directing their course. Hudson's river was their object, a part

of the country within the limits of Virginia, as their charter had expressed; but at Cape Cod, they were north of that tract of country nearly two degrees. But here they were compelled to stay their voyage; for though they attempted to direct their course to the south, yet adverse winds, a dangerous coast, and the unwillingness of the master of the ship, constrained them to cast anchor on this northern shore. The land which first struck their attention was so barren, and so destitute of every thing inviting, that they explored their neighbouring coast with their boat, till a harbour across the bay presented too many desirable objects to justify any further perilous experiments and speculations.

5. It is evident, that the captain of the *May-flower* was bribed by the agents of the *Dutch West India Company* to take these people to the northward of their settlements, lest the new settlers should prove an annoyance to their trade. By this piece of treachery, they were landed so far to the north as to be out of the bounds expressed in their patent, and that instrument could be of no use whatever to them. Of this circumstance, some unhappy spirits on board were apprised, and began to boast, that as soon as on shore, there would be no law, no restraint. "It was therefore thought proper, before disembarkation, that they should enter into an association, and combine themselves into a political body, to be governed by a majority. To this they consented; and a written instrument being drawn, they subscribed it with their own hands, and by unanimous vote chose John Carver their governor for one year." This document was signed by forty-one individuals, twenty-four being heads of families, and the other seventeen single men.

6. The vessel continued in Cape Cod Harbour about five weeks, during which time four persons died; on the 16th of December they crossed the bay and anchored in the harbour of PLYMOUTH, a name which they gave to their intended settlement, partly from the place having been so named in captain Smith's map, but more especially "in remembrance of the very kind and friend-

ly treatment they had received from the inhabitants of Plymouth, the fast port of their native country from which they sailed." What could have been the cause of this people undertaking this voyage and settlement, at such a season of the year, we are not informed; but it looks as if it had been occasioned by some mishap or oversight; for when they made land, the snow had begun to fall, and winter was setting in fast.

7. Upon their arrival at Plymouth, having fixed upon the best spot for a town settlement, "they went immediately to work, laying out house-lots; felling, sawing, riving, and carrying timber; and before the end of December, though interrupted by stormy weather, by the death of two, and by the sickness of many of their number, they had erected a store-house with a thatched roof, in which their goods were deposited, under a guard. Two rows of houses were begun, and as fast as they could be covered, the people, who were classed into nineteen families, came ashore and lodged in them. On Lord's day, the 31st of December, they attended divine service for the first time on shore," and dedicated their settlement to God, by the name previously fixed upon, as its standing designation.

8. The length of their voyage, including all the delays, perils, disappointments, and disasters, which attended it, a voyage of 134 days, from the time they left Southampton to their arrival in Plymouth harbour, ill prepared them to endure and brave the rigours of a North American winter, and in a wilderness too, where there was no asylum prepared for them, no house built, no fresh and wholesome provision, no vegetation, no friend to receive them, or to bid them welcome. These afflictive circumstances, as we may naturally expect, were the cause of that mortal sickness which prevailed among this tribe of pilgrim adventurers, during the first four months of their settlement. At the end of March, the *Mortal Bill* stood thus—"December, 6—January, 8—February, 17—March, 13—Total, 44." Of these, 21 were subscribers to the civil compact; and 23 were women, children, and servants.

9. At times, the number of the diseased was such, that not more than six or seven were able to attend the duties of the station, and these were almost wholly employed in attending the sick. The crew of the vessel was in a similar situation, of which they did not recover till April, and then half of them had fallen victims to the dire calamity. Great as this affliction was, it was attended with some marks of a kind superintending Providence. For the first three months, no Indians appeared to alarm or disturb them. It was found afterwards, that this district had been entirely laid waste by a pestilence (perhaps the yellow fever) which had prevailed two or three years before. This fact was evinced by the extent of the fields, the number of the graves, and the remnants of the skeletons lying on the ground.

10. The events we have now mentioned, respecting the depopulation of this country, by wars and pestilence, considered in reference to the settlement of our fathers in the desolated places, are certainly very remarkable. The dangers to which they were exposed from these untutored tribes, were greatly lessened; and the lands which they occupied being depopulated and deserted, the rights of no man were infringed. The Pilgrims of Plymouth obtained their right of possession to the territory on which they settled, by titles as fair and unequivocal as those by which any human property can be held. Although it has been adopted as a principle of natural law, that Europeans had a right to take and occupy a portion of the American continent, since it was not all needed by the natives, who were comparatively few in number; yet, it was policy, and seeming justice, to make the Indians a satisfactory compensation, on taking from them what they had considered their own.

11. On the 16th of March, the inhabitants of Plymouth were alarmed at seeing a sturdy Indian walk into their settlement, and passing by the houses, go directly where the people were collected. He saluted

them in broken English, and bid them welcome. He was affable, and told them his dwelling was five days travel thence; that he was a *sagamore*, or prince. He understood the geography of the country; gave an account of the different tribes, their *sagamores*, and number of men. He had been acquainted with the English, who had taken fish at Monhigan, and knew the names of their captains. He was naked, excepting a leather belt about his waist, with a fringe a span wide. He had a bow and two arrows, was tall and straight, his hair long behind, and short before. They kindly entertained him, and gave him a horseman's coat. He tarried all night, and informed them that the place where they were was Patuxet, and that about four years before, all the inhabitants (had died;) that not a man, woman, or child, survived.

12. Upon going away, he promised to return in a few days, which he accordingly did, and brought five others with him. Thus a communication was opened between the settlers and the native tribes; alliances were entered into, and great harmony prevailed. *Squanto*, a native who had been kidnapped by the English traders some time before, and who had made his way back again, came and took up his abode with them, and proved a faithful friend till death, which happened the following year. (*Squanto*) in consequence of being thus carried to Europe, had escaped the universal mortality of his tribe at Patuxet. He was profitably employed for the colony, during his life, in making his new friends acquainted with the surrounding country, and in other useful services.

13. It will be remembered, that Mr. Robinson remained at Leyden with the majority of the society, but with the expectation of being able, with more of his flock, to join those who had emigrated, at some future but not very distant time. This, however, on the part of Mr. Robinson, was not realized; for, in the year 1625, he was taken to his rest, greatly lamented by all who had been blessed under his ministry; but soon after his death, the remaining part of the congregation ac-

complished their wishes, in uniting with their brethren at Plymouth. In the year 1629, the number had increased to 300; having then received a great part of their brethren in Holland; among whom, were the widow and children of their deceased pastor. Their increasing name began to be felt in the mother country, so that not only did it bring over new settlers, but their patent was enlarged and perfected, so as to give them the power and authority of a body politic.

14. The 22d of December is celebrated as an anniversary festival, to commemorate the landing of the Plymouth colony. A discourse is delivered, adapted to the occasion; after public worship, more forcibly to impress their minds with the circumstances of their meritorious forefathers, clams, fish, ground-nuts, and vic-tims from the forest, constitute a part of their grateful repast. For a number of years, the same anniversary was celebrated in Boston by the descendants of the Plymouth pilgrims and others. Here, too, the festal board displayed the style of other times; treasures, which had been hidden in the sand, and game from the woods, mingled with other provisions of the table. It is a festival, rational and happy in its tendency. It reminds the guests of the virtues and sufferings of their fathers; by a comparison of circumstances, it excites transports of gratitude, elevates the affections, and amends the heart.

QUESTIONS.

1. To whom does New-England owe its origin, as a religious and civil community?—2. How long did Mr. Robinson's society remain in Leyden, before resolving to remove to America?—3. How many made the first company of emigrants?—4. Where did they make land?—5. Why were they carried so far north?—6. Where did they expect to land?—7. When did they land at Plymouth?—8. How many persons signed their articles of civil compact?—9. Into how many families was the colony divided?—10. How many persons died the first winter?—11. What had become of the native inhabitants of that country?—12. What Indian came and resided with them?

THE INDIAN PRINCESS.

1. PERHAPS they, who are not particularly acquainted with the history of Virginia, may be ignorant that Pocahontas, an Indian princess, was the protectress of the English, and often screened them from the cruelty of her father. She was but (twelve) years old, when Captain Smith, the bravest, the most intelligent, and the most humane, of the first colonists, fell into the hands of the savages. He already understood their language, had traded with them several times, and often appeased the quarrels between the Europeans and them. Often had he been obliged also to fight them and punish their perfidy.

2. At length, however, under the pretext of commerce, he was drawn into an ambush, and the only two companions who accompanied him, fell before his eyes; but though alone, by his dexterity, he extricated himself from the troop which surrounded him; until, unfortunately, imagining he could save himself by crossing a morass, he stuck fast; so that the savages, against whom he had no means of defending himself, at last took and bound him, and brought him to Powhatan.

3. The king was so proud of having captain Smith in his power, that he sent him in triumph to all the tributary princes, and ordered that he should be splendidly treated, till he returned to suffer that death which was prepared for him. The fatal moment at length arrived. Captain Smith was laid upon the hearth of the savage king, and his head placed upon a large stone to receive the stroke of death, when Pocahontas, the youngest and darling daughter of Powhatan, threw herself upon his body, clasped him in her arms, and declared, that if the cruel sentence was executed, the first blow should fall on her,

4. All savages (absolute sovereigns and tyrants not excepted) are invariably more affected by the tears of infancy, than the voice of humanity. Powhatan could not resist the tears and prayers of his daughter. Cap-

tain Smith consequently obtained his life, on condition of paying for his ransom a certain quantity of muskets, powder, and iron utensils; but how were they to be obtained? They would neither permit him to return to James Town, nor let the English know where he was, lest they should demand him sword in hand. Captain Smith, who was as sensible as courageous, said that if Powhatan would permit one of his subjects to carry to James Town a leaf which he took from his pocket-book, he should find under a tree, at the day and hour appointed, all the articles demanded for his ransom.

5. Powhatan consented; but without having much faith in his promises, believing it to be only an artifice of the captain to prolong his life. But he had written on the leaf a few lines, sufficient to give an account of his situation. The messenger returned. The king sent to the place fixed upon, and was greatly astonished to find every thing which had been demanded. Powhatan could not conceive this mode of transmitting thoughts; and captain Smith was henceforth looked upon as a great magician, to whom they could not show too much respect. He left the savages in this opinion, and hastened to return home.

6. Two or three years after, some fresh differences arising amidst them and the English, Powhatan, who no longer thought them sorcerers, but still feared their power, laid a horrible plan to get rid of them altogether. His project was to attack them in profound peace, and cut the throats of the whole colony. The night of this intended conspiracy, Pocahontas took advantage of the obscurity; and, in a terrible storm, which kept the savages in their tents, escaped from her father's house, advised the English to be on their guard, but conjured them to spare her family, to appear ignorant of the intelligence she had given, and terminate all their differences by a new treaty.

7. It would be tedious to relate all the services which this angel of peace rendered to both nations. It shall only be added, that the English, it is not known

from what motives, but certainly against all faith and equity, thought proper to carry her off. Long and bitterly did she deplore her fate, and the only consolation she had was captain Smith, in whom she found a second father. She was treated with great respect, and married to a planter by the name of Rolfe, who soon after took her to England. This was in the reign of James the first; and it is said that the monarch, pedantic and ridiculous in every point, was so infatuated with the prerogative of royalty, that he expressed his displeasure, that one of his subjects should dare to marry the daughter even of a savage king.

8. It will not perhaps be difficult to decide on this occasion, whether it was the savage king who derived honour from finding himself placed upon a level with the European prince, or the English monarch, who by his pride and prejudices, reduced himself to a level with the chief of the savages. Be that as it will, captain Smith, who had returned to London before the arrival of Pocahontas, was extremely happy to see her again; but dared not treat her with the same familiarity as at James Town. As soon as she saw him, she threw herself into his arms, calling him her father; but finding that he neither returned her caresses with equal warmth, nor the endearing title of daughter, she turned aside her head and wept bitterly; and it was a long time before they could obtain a single word from her.

9. Captain Smith inquired several times what could be the cause of her affliction. "What!" said she, "did I not save thy life in America? When I was torn from the arms of my father, and conducted amongst thy friends, didst thou not promise to be a father to me? Didst thou not assure me that if I went into thy country, thou wouldst be my father, and that I should be thy daughter? Thou hast deceived me; and behold me, now here, a stranger and an orphan." It was not difficult for the captain to make peace with this charming creature, whom he tenderly loved. He presented her to several people of the first quality; but

never dared to take her to court, from which, however, she received several favours.

10. After a residence of several years (in England,) an example of virtue and piety, and attachment to her husband, she died, as she was on the point of embarking for America. She left an only son, who was married, and left none but daughters; and from these are descended some of the (principal characters in Virginia.)

QUESTIONS.

1. At what age was Pocahontas when captain Smith fell into the hands of the Indians?—2. How happened he to be taken by them?—3. How did Pocahontas save his life?—4. How came Pocahontas to fall into the power of the English?—5. To whom was she married?—6. Where did she spend the remainder of her life?—7. Who are her descendants?

THE WORLD AT REST.

BEHOLD the world
Rests, and her tir'd inhabitants have paus'd
From trouble and turmoil. The widow now
Has ceas'd to weep, and her twin orphans lie
Lock'd in each arm, partakers of her rest.
The man of sorrow has forgot his woes;
The outcast, that his head is shelterless,
His griefs unshar'd.—The mother tends no more
Her daughter's dying slumbers; but, surpris'd
With heaviness, and sunk upon her couch,
Dreams of her bridals. E'en the hectic, lull'd
On Death's lean arm to rest, in visions wrapt,
Crowning with hope's bland wreath his shudd'ring nurse,
Poor victim! smiles.—Silence and deep repose
Reign o'er the nations; and the warning voice
Of nature utters audibly within
The general moral;—tells us, that repose,
Deathlike as this, but of far longer span,
Is coming on us—that the weary crowds,
Who now enjoy a temporary calm,
Shall soon taste lasting quiet, wrapt around

With grave-clothes; and their aching, restless heads
Mould'ring in holes and corners unobserv'd,
Till the last trump shall break their sullen sleep.

SETTLEMENT OF RHODE ISLAND.

1. THE first European inhabitants of New England came to this country with the professed design of escaping religious persecution, but the principles of religious liberty at that time were so little understood, that they exercised upon their fellow Christians, as soon as possessed of the power, the same intolerance which they had professed to view with so much abhorrence in others. The state of Rhode Island, or more properly of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, as it is called in the British charter which constituted it a political community, and under which its civil government is still administered, was originally settled by persons who resorted thither in order to enjoy those rights of conscience in matters of religion which were not allowed them in Massachusetts. The state took its name from the two first settlements within its limits. That of Providence Plantations was begun by Roger Williams and his associates in 1636; and that of Rhode Island was begun by Dr. John Clark, William Coddington and others, about the year 1638. Besides these a third settlement was begun by Samuel Gorton and others, at Pautuxet river, in the year 1641.

2. Roger Williams may with justice be, and he usually is considered the founder of the state and the parent of the religious freedom which has ever prevailed in it. He was a native of Wales, born in the year 1598, and had a liberal education, under the patronage of Sir Edward Coke. The occasion of his receiving the favour of that distinguished lawyer was very singular. Sir Edward, one day, at church, observing a youth taking notes from a sermon, beckoned and received him into his pew. He obtained sight of the notes,

No. 4.



which were a judicious selection of the most interesting sentiments delivered by the preacher. This united with his great modesty induced Sir Edward to solicit the parents of young Williams to let him have the care of their son. The request was readily granted, and he soon entered upon the study of the law. Mr. Williams received all possible assistance from his generous patron; but finding this employment not altogether congenial to his feelings, he turned his attention to divinity. After having completed his theological studies and entered upon the duties of the ministry, he was led to embrace the sentiments of the Puritans, with some of whom he shortly afterwards embarked for America, being the 5th of February, 1631.)

3. On his arrival he was invited to become an assistant to Mr. Skelton, minister of the religious society in Salem; but some objections being made by the civil authority, he went to Plymouth, where he preached two or three years, and was held in high estimation by governor Bradford and the people. But Mr. Skelton becoming old, a second application was made to Mr. Williams to become his assistant. With this request he complied, although the general court again attempted to prevent it; and so successful had he been in gaining the affections of the people at Plymouth, that many of them removed with him. But his removal to Salem led immediately to events of great interest to himself and to the country in which he was destined by Providence to act so conspicuous a part. It is stated by his biographers, that in one year he literally filled the place with his obnoxious sentiments. His favorite topic was liberty of conscience, on which he so much insisted as to offend a few leading individuals of the congregation; and he further maintained, which was still more offensive, that civil magistrates, as such, had no authority from God to regulate or controul the affairs of religion. He also insisted that the princes of Europe had no right whatever, to dispose of the possessions of the American Indians.

4. The magistrates, apprehending, from his peculiar talents and address, that his opinions would extend themselves, made several attempts to convince him of his supposed errors; but, being unsuccessful in these attempts, in October 1635, they passed upon him the sentence of excommunication and banishment. Permission, however, was given him to remain within the jurisdiction of the colony till Spring, on condition, "that he would not go about to draw others to his opinions." But it being reported to the governor and assistants, that he held meetings in his house for the purpose of inculcating "such points as he had been censured for;" and that he had already drawn about twenty persons to these opinions, intending with them to establish a plantation about Narraganset Bay, "from which the new infection might easily spread into their churches, the people being much taken with the apprehension of his godliness," it was resolved that he should be sent back to England in a ship then ready to depart. They accordingly sent for him to come to Boston; but he made some excuse for not complying with their request, upon which they issued an order to apprehend and convey him on board the ship. Mr. Williams, however, aware of their designs, had been three days gone before the officer reached the house.

5. The next that was heard of him was on Seekonk plain, a few miles east of Providence. Here he obtained a grant of land from the chief sachem at Mount Hope, now in Bristol, R. I. but being informed by a letter and messenger from Plymouth, that this place was within their patent, it was resolved to cross the Pawtucket river and take up their abode more immediately with the savages. It is said, that when Mr. Williams and his friend Olney, and Thomas Angel, an hired servant, approached the opposite shore in their canoe, they were met by the savages and saluted by the Indian word, that signifies, what cheer? They then pursued their course till they came to a pleasant spring upon the side of a hill, which is the northerly part of what is now the large and flourishing town of Provi-

dense. In this place they resolved to settle, and from a sense of the goodness of God to them, to give it the name by which it has ever since been called. The spring still remains, and is nearly opposite St. John's Church.

6. Here he found that favour among the savages which Christians had denied him. Many of his friends and adherents soon repaired to his new habitation. He had the happiness to gain the friendship of two powerful Narraganset princes, of whom he made a formal purchase of a territory sufficient for himself and his friends. He soon acquired a sufficient knowledge of the Indian language to transact the affairs of trade and other necessary negotiation, and perhaps no man ever had more influence over the savage tribes than Roger Williams. This influence enabled him to sooth the irritable Indian chiefs, and break up their confederacies against the English; and the first act of this kind was performed in favour of the colony from which he had been banished. It is not necessary in most cases for the historian to sit in judgment upon the conflicting claims to divine authority, between different religionists, for the support of their respective peculiarities, whether in faith or worship; but in the present case it is too obvious to escape observation, that in practice the religion of Mr. Williams was more conformable to the precepts of Jesus Christ, than that of his persecutors.

7. But if, from a view of these unhappy divisions, it should be supposed Mr. Williams exercised more of the Christian temper than his enemies, it should always be remembered, that it is nearly a matter of course, such is the imperfection of human nature, for dissenters from any established religion, to fall into unnecessary peculiarities, and into a seeming disposition to irritate the feelings of the majority when no conscientious scruple requires it. It is possible that may have been the case with Mr. Williams, and the other dissenters from the religion that prevailed in New-England, at that time. As good a man as Mr. Williams is supposed to be by his friends, and as correct as were his

opinions on religious liberty—and it cannot be pretended that they were less correct than the opinions of any other man living at that time—his greatest admirers will acknowledge him no more than human. Nor is it necessary, as already intimated, to suppose, that all the censure is just which was cast upon the persons, who, in this country, at the time under consideration, exercised a persecuting spirit; for, then, as has been observed, religious liberty was but imperfectly understood—and had they lived in this enlightened age of the world, not unlikely they would abhor such a spirit as much as ourselves.

8. Shortly subsequent to the banishment of Roger Williams, it was found, that Massachusetts was much convulsed by religious discords, which caused a synod to be holden at Newton, now Cambridge, which adjudged sundry religious opinions to be heretical, and passed sentence of banishment upon such as held the most obnoxious of them. These disturbances induced John Clark, an eminent physician, (William Coddington, and several others of their friends, in the year 1638, to resolve on a removal out of the jurisdiction of that state; and by the advice of Roger Williams they were induced to settle at Aquidneck, now called Rhode Island. On the 7th of March, 1638, the men of this party, to the number of eighteen, united themselves into a body politic, and chose William Coddington their judge or chief magistrate. At the commencement of this settlement on Rhode Island, Dr. Clark became the minister of a society of Baptists then formed; and he continued to act in this character till his death, which happened in 1676, in the 66th year of his age. The particulars of his imprisonment at Boston, of his being sentenced to pay a fine of twenty pounds or be publicly whipped, for preaching at Lynn where he had occasion to go on business, and of the important part which he took both at home and in England in the concerns of his infant colony, are minutely detailed in the biographical notices of his life.

9. The hardships and privations endured by the first

settlers of the other New England colonies, have drawn forth the warmest sympathies of the Christian and philanthropist. When we see persons, solely for religious considerations, willing to forsake the scenes and companions of their youth, to cross the wide ocean amidst perils and sufferings, and then to settle for life in a region surrounded by savages and wild beasts of the most ferocious kind, in a region almost destitute of the elegancies and delights of civilized life; we cannot but admire their fortitude, we cannot but admire the unconquerable tendency in human nature to yield itself to the impulses of religious faith, regardless of consequences. But in the settlement of Rhode Island the circumstances were materially different. Here, the first settlers did not engage in a voluntary enterprise. They were actually compelled by their Christian brethren to abandon their own houses, to traverse a wilderness through deep snows, and then to dwell with savages without comfortable habitations and food.

QUESTIONS.

1. From what does the state of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations derive its name?—2. Where and by whom were the three first settlements made?—3. What induced them to settle here?—4. Under whose direction and patronage did Roger Williams receive his education?—5. What led sir Edward Coke to educate him?—6. By whom, and for what reason, did Providence receive its name?—7. Who accompanied Roger Williams when he went to Providence, after being banished from Massachusetts?

SETTLEMENT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

1. **WILLIAM PENN**, the founder of Pennsylvania, was the only son of admiral Penn of the English navy, and was born in the year 1644. The mother of William Penn was as eminent for all those amiable virtues which peculiarly adorn the female character, as his father was for whatever contributed to make a brave and high minded officer. To her judicious instruction and truly

Christian example, according to his own statement, he was chiefly indebted, under the blessing of God, for that inflexible justice and that ardent piety, for which he was, through life, so much characterized. When only a child he discovered these noble qualities, in a remarkable degree. He entered the university at Oxford before he was fifteen years of age, where he soon became as much distinguished for superior scholarship as for pleasing manners and a naturally amiable disposition.

2. At an early period in his college life, hearing that a strange sort of a preacher, then by way of ridicule called a Quaker, was about to hold a meeting at Oxford, he with other students determined to go and hear him. It might have been supposed, that the broad-brimmed hat and the drab-coloured coat of the most humble kind, with young men accustomed to see religious teachers clad in the expensive robes of the established church, would have been a subject of ridicule; but the simplicity of his manner, together with the pungent truths delivered by the Quaker preacher, produced on the mind of Penn and of a few others an impression of the deepest seriousness. Of this number was Robert, afterwards lord Spencer, and the celebrated John Lock. Between the latter and William Penn, this circumstance laid the foundation of a friendship, that was as lasting as life; and was several times exercised in a manner which sufficiently proved the sincerity and the ardour of their love.

3. These three young men, by frequently conversing with each other, on the subject of the Quaker's discourse, had their feelings wrought to such a height, that they began to think it a matter of conscience to hold meetings by themselves, instead of attending church. They were, however, soon called to an account, by the college authority, for this neglect of duty; and not giving the necessary satisfaction, they were severely fined. But this, instead of destroying the influence of their Quaker notions on religion, only gave them new life and vigour. As the government of the college had attempted to compel them into conformity

to the established church, they were led, where they conceived they had the power, to exercise compulsory measures to induce others to adopt their own notions. One day, on meeting some of their fellow students, they remonstrated with them for their extravagance of dress; but, being ridiculed for their supposed enthusiasm, they fell upon them outright, and by main force rent their clothes from their shoulders.) For this imprudent act, which Penn ever afterwards condemned as proceeding from a zeal without knowledge, he was arraigned before the professors and trustees of college, and formally expelled:

4. The expulsion of Penn from college, was the commencement of those interesting events which signalized his life. Apprehending what would be the effect of his expulsion upon his parents, he delayed as long as possible giving them the painful intelligence; and he declined writing altogether, preferring to be the bearer of it himself. At length, he accordingly sat out for Penn's Dale, the admiral's residence, where his sudden appearance struck them with surprise. "Hallo William!" cried his father with joy, giving him his hand; "why, what, my son! returned to port already! I hope you have met with no foul weather!" His mother, roused by the sudden sound of William's name, turned round with her face flushed with joy, and running to embrace him, exclaimed—"Heigh, my dear William! what brought you home so soon?" His father and mother both observing a sudden paleness on his cheeks, anxiously inquired *what was the matter?*

5. Young Penn, with his characteristic firmness, replied—"I am expelled from the University!" Pale as a blighted lily, poor Mrs. Penn stood like a speechless statue; while the admiral, clasping his hands and rolling his eyes as if he had suddenly beheld half of his fleet blown up by the Dutch, exclaimed—"Expelled from the University!" "Yes, sir," replied William, "they have expelled me."—"Expelled you, do you still say, child," continued the agitated admiral—"a child of mine expelled from an English University! why! what

(uttering a passionate exclamation) could have been the cause?"—"Why, sir," answered William, "it was because I tore their dresses from off the shoulders of some of the students."—Here the admiral, with cheeks swollen of anger, and a voice shrill as a boatswain's whistle, exclaimed—"You tore the dresses from off the shoulders of some of the students! why?"—uttering an oath—"what had you to do with *their* dresses?"—"Why," answered William, "their dresses were so *phantastical* and *unbecoming* the dignity of Englishmen and the sobriety of christians, that I felt a duty to my country and conscience to bear my testimony against them. And moreover, I was assisted in it by Robert Spencer and John Lock, and other discreet youths of the college."

6. To this introduction, succeeded a long dialogue between the admiral and his son on his expulsion from college, and the causes which led to it. The latter expatiated much on liberty of conscience and his *new lights* in religion, while the former feelingly, and sometimes with anger, remonstrated against his conduct; but all without producing any agreement of opinion or external reconciliation. At length the admiral told him he might have till the next morning to consider of it, whether to return to the university and make such concessions as would secure his re-admission, or be banished from his father's house. Upon this, he retired to a room with his mother, whom he had little difficulty in reconciling to himself; and, in case he should be driven from the house of his father, she advised him to go immediately into Buckinghamshire, and live with her mother, until his father's anger should be appeased.

7. On the next day, as soon as breakfast was over, which was passed in silence, the admiral took his son into the study and inquired what was his determination. With all the meekness yet firmness of an honest Quaker, William replied, that he had "*turned his thoughts to the light within*"; and that while he felt, with exceeding affection, how much he owed his earthly father, he owed still more to his heavenly, and therefore could

never offend him, by sinning against the light, and endangering his own soul."—"Well, then, you will not go back to the ESTABLISHED CHURCH!" replied the admiral, angrily.—"While my convictions remain, father, I can never leave the Quakers." "Well, then, sir," rejoined the admiral, almost choked with passion, "you must leave;" and ordered him instantly to quit the house. Deeming it fruitless to reply or remonstrate, William took up his hat and went out of the house, without uttering a word.

8. William, according to the arrangement made by his mother above named, directed his course to Buckinghamshire. His grandmother, being apprised of the cruel treatment he had received, was the more lavish in her kind attentions to him. But he was not long to remain in the elegant mansion of this esteemed relative. The admiral, as predicted by his excellent wife, soon relented, and sent for William to return home. A more gentle policy was to be pursued—he was to be sent to Paris, under pretence of learning the French language; but in reality, to be kept out of sight and hearing of the despised Quakers. He was loaded with letters of introduction to the nobility of that fashionable metropolis, and every means was attempted to occupy his attention with other objects, so that no time would be left for religious speculations. The result far exceeded the most sanguine expectation; for on his return from Paris William was the admiration of his friends, having obtained a perfect knowledge of the French language, and acquired all that elegance and fascination of manners for which that people is so justly celebrated.

9. The admiral, delighted with the change that had taken place in William's appearance, introduced him at court; carried him about as in triumph among his illustrious friends, and for fear he should relapse into his *old gloomy ways*, as he termed them, he resolved to send him over at once to Ireland, to take the management of an estate that had lately fallen to him in the neighbourhood of Dublin. And to insure him a full

round of dissipation, his pockets were filled with letters from the admiral's court friends, introducing him in the most flattering terms, to the lord lieutenant, and other distinguished characters of that large city. On his arrival, he applied himself very diligently to the settlement of his estate; visiting and spending his intervals of leisure in the society of the lord lieutenant and his friends, who paid uncommon attention to him as an amiable young man, and the only son and heir of sir William Penn, high admiral of the British navy. While perusing a Dublin paper one evening, his attention was caught by a Notice, that "*one of the people called Quakers was to preach in the Market House, the next day.*" Although William had, for some time, conformed to the established church, yet he had never lost his partiality for the Quakers; and therefore immediately resolved to go to meeting.

10. On the rising of the preacher to speak, whom should his eyes behold, but the smooth and placid countenance of his old friend Thomas Loe, whose preaching at Oxford produced such an effect on his mind? nor was friend Loe less surprised to discover among his auditors the university student, who two years before professed to be a proselyte to his preaching. This circumstance, connected with an interview at the close of the meeting, revived some of the most interesting recollections, in each of their minds—a free interchange of which caused young Penn again to resolve on conformity to the doctrines of the Quakers. His intercourse with the Irish nobility accordingly ceased, which, together with the cause of it, was immediately communicated to his father. The admiral was more enraged, if possible, than before; and wrote at once, for William to return without delay. His spirits were at first, as might have been expected, much depressed by this letter; but the depression was only momentary. Religion soon administered her cordial. On his return home, he firmly maintained his full persuasion of the Quaker doctrines, and his determination to follow the

dictates of his own conscience, which caused his father a second time to banish him from his house.)

11. At this time, young Penn was about eighteen years of age. On leaving Penn's Dale, he proceeded to London forthwith. His first inquiry, on reaching it, was where he might find some of the "*people called Quakers.*" He was directed to the house of one George Whitehead, an eminent minister of that denomination of christians. It so happened there was a meeting that day at Whitehead's house. This was a most desirable event to Penn, who went in, took his seat with them, and, after relating his trials, of which, however, they had before heard, was formally acknowledged by them as a member of their Society. He did not become a preacher with them for six years from this time; but he immediately commenced the vindication of their sentiments by writing, and for one of the first of his productions was committed to prison. Nor was this the only instance of the like persecution. Indeed, he became so accustomed to it, that on one occasion of his being condemned to the tower, when a file of soldiers was ordered to guard him thither, Penn sarcastically said to the Judge—" *Thee need not send thy soldiers—send thy boy, I know the way.*"

12. When William Penn was in prison the first time, the admiral returned from sea in consequence of declining health. With a broken constitution, his spirits had undergone a corresponding change. Learning that his son was in confinement, on the next day after his arrival, he employed a friend to effect his release. William, apprehending the cause of this sudden alteration in his father's feelings, hastened home without delay. On their first meeting, a perfect reconciliation to his conduct was declared by the father, who entreated that he would no more leave him. Although young Penn had made other engagements for spending his time, he still deemed it a duty and a dictate of his religion, to administer as far as in his power to a sick parent. These services of filial duty, however, were not long needed; for in the year 1670, his father

died, aged only forty-nine. By this event, William Penn became owner of a very handsome estate, supposed to be worth at that time 1,500*l.* sterling per annum, equal to 15,000 dollars now, besides a demand on the crown, for loans made by his father, to the amount of 16,000*l.* sterling, equal, as money now goes, to two hundred thousand dollars.)

13. In consequence of some difficulty in recovering the debt due from the crown, and a desire to provide a place where his Quaker brethren might be free from religious persecution, he proposed to receive in payment from the British government for the debt due him, that tract of land in North America, lying west of the Delaware river and north of Maryland, now called Pennsylvania. His proposition was accepted, and king Charles II. with little delay drew up and presented Penn with a deed, saying in his jocose manner—"Well, friend William, you'll see in this paper that I have done something handsome for you. Yes, *man*, I have given you there a territory in North America, as large as my own island of Great Britain. And knowing what a fighting family you sprung from, I made you governor and captain general of all its coasts, and seas, and bays, and rivers, and mountains, and forests, and population. And now in return for all this, I have but a few conditions to make with thee."

14. William Penn begged the king would let him know what they were.—"Why, in the first place," replied Charles, "you are to give me a fifth of all the gold and silver you may find there. But as you Quakers care but little about the precious metals, I don't count on much from that quarter. In the second place, friend William, you are to be sure not to make war on the nations without my consent. But in case of a war you are always to remember that you are an Englishman, and therefore must never use the *scalping knife*. In the third place, if any persons of my religion, the *honest Episcopalians*, would wish to come and settle in your Quaker province, you shall receive them kindly; and if they should at any time invite a preacher of their

own, he shall be permitted to come among you. And moreover, if they should like to build what we call a church, (but you a *steeple house*,) you will not forbid it." William Penn smiled and said that FRIEND CHARLES; for so he often called the king, "should certainly be gratified in all these things; for," added he, "I, who have drank so deeply of the bitter waters of persecution myself, will never, I hope, consent to persecute others on the score of religion."

15. Having obtained his charter under the great seal of England, Penn lost no time in giving public information of the territory he had purchased in North America, and of the favourable terms on which he would dispose of it. This information was followed by consequences beyond his most sanguine expectations. The general confidence inspired by it is without a parallel in the annals of a private man. Trading companies immediately made large purchases; and crowds of individuals from all parts of the empire seemed desirous of going to the land of William Penn. Nor were they the Quakers alone who prepared themselves to follow him to the western world. Numbers of other denominations, confiding in that good name which all seemed to delight in giving him, offered themselves to partake of the good or ill fortune that awaited them beyond the seas. Having sent off three ships laden with adventurers, and a fourth, in which he himself was to embark, being nearly ready for sea, he hastened up to London to take leave of the king (Charles the Second) who, though by no means the man after his own heart, had yet shown great good will towards him, and even a particular friendship. Having performed this duty of respect to his king, he spent a day with his family and then repaired to his ship.

16. After a voyage of six weeks, he reached the capes of Delaware bay, which he entered with feelings of the most ardent gratitude to God for his continued goodness. His course was thence directed up the bay, till it narrowed into a noble river about two miles

wide. Here was a small town, belonging to a colony of Swedes and Dutch, since called Newcastle, with the inhabitants of which Penn remained a short time, giving them assurance of his protection; and then proceeded up the river about forty miles, till a little past the mouth of the Schuylkill, where he gave orders to cast anchor. A site combining so much natural grandeur and convenience, could hardly escape the discerning eye of Penn. Upon the bank of the river at this place, were two Indian towns; and soon as the ship was anchored, the boat with an interpreter was sent on shore, to inform the Indians that the sachem or chief of the whites had arrived, and wished to have a *“grand talk with his Red brothers the next day, when the sun was at his half way house in the sky.”*

17. Soon as the natives saw the boat put off from the ship, they came down from both villages, men, women, and children, to meet them; and although, from a total ignorance of their language, there was no conversation between them except by signs and a few words through their interpreter, yet the interview was highly interesting, each party marking the colour, features, and dress of the other with all the pleasures of surprise. As Penn in the ships that preceded him had appointed commissioners, to treat with the Indians for the purchase of a part of their lands, and for their joint possession of the remainder, but little remained, but to conclude the settlement, and solemnly to pledge his faith, and to ratify and confirm the treaty in sight both of the Indians and planters.—On the return of the boat the interpreter reported to William Penn, that the chiefs had given him to understand, they had been informed by the Raritons, this sachem of the whites was a *good man*, and that his white children which he had sent into their country in the *big canoes*, had never done them any harm. The chiefs also agreed to meet Penn at the time proposed, and promised to give information to the inhabitants of the surrounding country, that there might be a *good many at the talk*.

18. Accordingly on the day following, at the hour

appointed, an innumerable multitude of Indians assembled in that neighbourhood; and were seen, with their dark visages and brandished arms, moving, in vast swarms, in the depth of the woods which then overshadowed the whole of that now cultivated region. On the other hand, William Penn, with a moderate attendance of friends, advanced to meet them. He came of course unarmed—in his usual plain dress—without banners, or mace, or guard, or carriages; and only distinguished from his companions by wearing a blue sash of silk net-work, (which, it seems, is still preserved by Mr. Kett of Seething-hall, near Norwich,) and by having in his hand a roll of parchment, on which was engrossed the confirmation of the treaty of purchase and amity. As soon as he drew near the spot where the sachems were assembled, the whole multitude of Indians threw down their weapons, and seated themselves on the ground in groups, each under his own chieftain; and the presiding chief intimated to William Penn, that the nations were ready to hear him.

19. Having been called upon, he began.—“The Great Spirit,” he said, “who made him and them, who ruled the heaven and the earth, and who knew the innermost thoughts of man, knew that he and his friends had a hearty desire to live in peace and friendship with them, and to serve them to the utmost of their power. It was not their custom to use hostile weapons against their fellow-creatures, for which reason they had come unarmed. Their object was not to do injury and thus provoke the Great Spirit, but to do good. They were then met on the broad pathway of good faith and good will, so that no advantage was to be taken on either side, but all was to be openness, brotherhood, and love.” He then unrolled the parchment, and by means of the same interpreter, conveyed to them, article by article, the conditions of the purchase, and the words of the compact then made for their eternal union. Among other things, they were not to be molested in their lawful pursuits even in the territory they had alienated, for it was to be common to them

and the English. They were to have the liberty to do all things therein relating to the improvement of their grounds, and the providing of sustenance for their families, which the English had. If any disputes should arise between the two, they should be settled by twelve persons, half of whom should be English, and half Indians.

20. He then paid them for the land, and made them many presents besides from the merchandise which had been spread before them. Having done this, he laid the roll of parchment on the ground, observing again, that the ground should be common to both people. He then added, that he would not do as the Marylanders did, that is, call them children or brothers only; for often parents were apt to whip their children too severely, and brothers would sometimes differ; neither would he compare the friendship between him and them to a chain, for the rain might sometimes rust it, or a tree might fall and break it; but he should consider them as the same flesh and blood with the Christians, and the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts. He then took up the parchment, and presented it to the sachem who wore the horn in the chaplet, and desired him and the other sachems to preserve it carefully for three generations, that their children might know what had passed between them, just as if he himself had remained with them to repeat it.

21. The Indians, in return, made long and stately harangues—of which, however, no more seems to have been remembered, but that “they pledged themselves to live in love with William Penn as long as the sun and moon should endure.” Having in his own honest and peaceable way obtained of the poor natives a title to that fine province which had so long dwelt on his mind, he then with great joy and thankfulness of heart, set about having it surveyed. The city of Philadelphia, according to its present plan, was immediately laid out; and so ardent was the passion for building, that late as the season was when he arrived, more than fifty houses of

different descriptions were built before winter—a city rising like magic out of the woods, promising, what has actually happened, to become the metropolis of a great state and a principal emporium of commerce, literature, and the arts to a great nation. Nor were all the first settlements of the colony within the limits of the city—they were scattered over several of the neighbouring counties; and, by the end of three months from the arrival of the first ship, they amounted to three thousand souls.

QUESTIONS.

1. At what age did William Penn enter college?—2. What first inclined him to the Quakers?—3. For what was he expelled from college?—4. What severe measures did his father take with him on his expulsion?—5. For what did his father send him to Paris and afterwards to Ireland?—6. What was the occasion of his being recalled from Ireland?—7. What then became of him?—8. Under what circumstances did his father become reconciled to him?—9. What property did his father leave him?—10. How did he obtain a title to Pennsylvania?—11. When did he proceed thither himself?—12. How many settlers came the first three months?—13. How many houses were built in Philadelphia, during the autumn in which Penn first arrived?

LIBERTY.

'Tis Liberty alone that gives the flower
Of fleeting life its lustre and perfume;
And we are weeds without it. All constraint,
Except what wisdom lays on evil men,
Is evil; hurts the faculties; impedes
Their progress in the road to science; blinds
The eyesight of discovery; and begets
In those that suffer it, a sordid mind
Bestial, & meagre intellect, unfit
To be the tenant of man's noble form.

CAPTURE OF MRS. DUSTON.

1. In the year 1897, on the 5th day of March, a body of Indians attacked the town of Haverhill, Massachusetts; burnt a small number of houses, and killed and captivated about forty of the inhabitants. A party of them, arrayed in all the terrors of Indian war dress, and carrying with them the multiplied horrors of a savage invasion, approached near the house of a Mr. Duston. This man was abroad at his usual labour. Upon the first alarm, he flew to the house, with a hope of hurrying to a place of safety his family, consisting of his wife, who had been confined a week¹ only in child-bed; her nurse, a Mrs. Mary Telf, a widow from the neighbourhood; and eight children. Seven of his children he ordered to flee with the utmost expedition, in the course opposite to that in which the danger was approaching; and went himself to assist his wife. But before she could leave her bed, the savages were upon them.

2. Her husband, thus despairing of rendering her any service, flew to the door, mounted his horse, and determined to snatch up the child with which he was unable to part, when he should overtake the little flock. When he came up to them, about two hundred yards from his house, he was unable to make a choice, or to leave any one of the number. He therefore determined to take his lot with them, and to defend them from their murderers, or die by their side. A body of the Indians pursued and came up with him; and from near distances fired at him and his little company. He returned the fire, and retreated, alternately. For more than a mile, he kept so resolute a face to his enemy, retiring in the rear of his charge, returned the fire of the savages so often, and with so good success, and sheltered so effectually his terrified companions, that he finally lodged them all, safe from the pursuing butchers, in a distant house.

3. Another party of the Indians entered the house, immediately after Mr. Duston had quitted it, and found

Mrs. Duston, and her nurse, who was attempting to fly with the infant in her arms. Mrs. Duston they ordered to rise instantly; and, before she could completely dress herself, obliged her and her companion, to quit the house, after they had plundered it, and set it on fire. In company with several other captives, they began their march into the wilderness—she, feeble, sick, terrified beyond measure, partially clad, one of her feet bare, and the season utterly unfit for travelling. The air was chilly and keen, and the earth covered, alternately, with snow and deep mud. Her conductors were unfeeling, insolent, and revengeful. Murder was their glory; and torture their sport. Her infant was in her nurse's arms,—and infants were the customary victims of savage barbarity.

4. The company had proceeded but a short distance, when an Indian, thinking it an incumbrance, took the child out of the nurse's arms, and dashed its head against a tree. Such of the other captives, as began to be weary, and to lag, the Indians tomahawked. The slaughter was not an act of revenge, nor of cruelty. It was a mere convenience—an effort so familiar, as not even to excite an emotion.—Feeble as Mrs. Duston was, both she and her nurse sustained, without yielding, the fatigue of the journey. Their intense distress for the death of the child, and of their companions, anxiety for those whom they had left behind, and unceasing terror for themselves, raised those unhappy women to such a degree of vigor, that, notwithstanding their fatigue, their exposure to cold, their sufferance of hunger, and their sleeping on damp ground under an inclement sky, they finished an expedition of about eighty miles, without losing their spirits, or injuring their health.

5. The wigwam to which they were conducted, and which belonged to the savage, who had claimed them as his property, was inhabited by twelve persons. In the month of April, this family set out with their captives for an Indian settlement, still more remote; and informed them, that when they arrived at the settlement, they must be stripped, scourged, and run the gauntlet, naked, between two files of Indians, contain-

ing the whole number found in the settlement—for such, they declared, was the standing custom of their nation. This information made a deep impression on the minds of the captive women ; and led them, irresistibly, to devise all the possible means of escape. On the 31st of the same month, very early in the morning, Mrs. Duston, while the Indians were asleep, having awaked her nurse, and a fellow prisoner, (a youth taken sometime before from Worcester) despatched, with the assistance of her companions, ten of the twelve Indians. The other two escaped. With the scalps of these savages, they returned through the wilderness ; and, having arrived safely at Haverhill, and afterwards at Boston, received a handsome reward for their intrepid conduct, from the Legislature.)

6. Whether all their sufferings, and all the danger of suffering anew, justified this slaughter, may probably be a subject of inquiry with moralists. The truth is, the season of Indian invasion, burning, butchering, captivity, threatening, and torture, is an unfortunate time for nice investigation, and critical moralizing. A wife, who had just seen her house burnt, her infant dashed against a tree, and her companions coldly murdered one by one ; who supposed her husband, and her remaining children, to have shared the same fate ; who was threatened with torture, and indecency more painful than torture ; and who did not entertain a doubt, that the threatening would be fulfilled ; would probably feel no necessity, when she found it in her power to despatch the authors of her sufferings, of asking questions concerning any thing, but the success of the enterprise. .

7. But, whatever may be thought of the rectitude of her conduct, that of her husband is the most praiseworthy. A finer succession of scenes for the pencil was hardly ever presented to the eye, than is furnished by the efforts of this gallant man, with their interesting appendages. The artist must be destitute indeed of talents, who could not engross every heart, as well as every eye, by exhibitions of this husband and father, flying to rescue his wife, her infant, and her nurse, from

the approaching horde of savages; attempting, on his horse, to select from his flying family, the child which he was the least able to spare, and unable to make the selection; alternately, and sternly, retreating behind his inestimable charge, and fronting the enemy again, receiving, and returning their fire; and presenting himself, equally, as a barrier against the murderers, and a shelter to the flight of innocence and anguish. In the back ground of some or other of these pictures, might be exhibited, with powerful impression, the kindled dwelling, the sickly mother, the terrified nurse with the new-born infant in her arms; and the furious natives surrounding them, driving them forward, and displaying the trophies of savage victory, and the insolence of savage triumph.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where did Mrs. Duston live?—2. When was she captured?—3. How old was her infant child at the time?—4. What became of the child?—5. How far was Mrs. Duston carried before reaching the wigwam of her owner?—6. How did she effect her escape?

NEW ENGLAND WITCHCRAFT.

1. From the year 1645, when the first suspicion of witchcraft in New England began, at Springfield, several persons were accused of this crime. Of those who were accused, four (to wit, one at Charlestown, one at Dorchester, one at Cambridge, and one at Boston,) were executed. For almost thirty years afterwards, the subject seems to have slept in tolerable quiet. But in the year 1687, or 1688, four of the children of John Goodwin, a respectable inhabitant of Boston, united in accusing a poor Irish woman of bewitching them. The accusation was unhappily regarded with an attention which it very ill deserved. Not only did the citizens in the neighbourhood treat the subject as a thing of consequence; but a number of the clergy held a day of fasting and prayer on the occasion at the house

of Mr. Goodwin. This unhappy measure gave the affair a solemn aspect at once. The poor woman, who seems to have been stupified with terror, or bewildered by distraction, was apprehended. An inquest of physicians pronounced her to be of sound mind. In consequence of this decision she was tried, and executed.

2. An account of the whole transaction was published; and so generally were the wise and good, as well as the weak and wicked, of this century, convinced of the reality of witchcraft, that we find, not only Mr. Baxter writing a preface to the account, and declaring him who would not believe it to be an obdurate Sadducee, but Glanville publishing stories of witches; Sir Matthew Hale trying them in the Court of King's bench; several eminent lawyers laying down rules for convicting them; and several grave clergymen, such as Perkins and Bernard, undertaking to prove the existence, and defining the characteristics, evidences, and boundaries, of witchcraft. With all these preparatives, it cannot be surprising, that at a time, when the reality of witchcraft had never been questioned, and in a country, where it scarcely ever had been doubted, the case of these children should make a deep impression. The same general conviction prevailed every where. Every where persons suspected of being witches, and wizards, were tried, condemned, and executed, by the authority of the first tribunals in Europe, as well as by inferior judicatories. In England more persons were executed in a single county, than in all the colonies of New England, from the arrival of the Plymouth settlers, to the present time.

3. It ought to be here observed, that a belief in the existence, and power, of witches, although unwarranted either by reason or revelation, has been the universal belief of man. The truth, as every intelligent and candid man will acknowledge, is; the existence of witchcraft had never been taken up by the human mind as a subject of investigation. This capital point had been uniformly omitted; and every enquirer, instead of examining whether there was any such thing as witchcraft, directed all his efforts to determine what

were its causes, characteristics, proofs, limits, and effects. Where such was the nature of discussions, formed by statesmen, judges, lawyers and divines, the only proper question concerning this subject must, it is obvious, be naturally and universally, forgotten.

4. Near the close of February, 1692, two girls, about eleven years of age, (a daughter and a niece of Mr. Paris, minister of Danvers, then Salem-village) and two other girls in the neighborhood, began, as the children of Mr. Goodwin had done before, to act in a peculiar and unaccountable manner; creeping for example into holes, and under chairs, using many unnatural gestures, and uttering many ridiculous observations, equally destitute of sense and sobriety. This behaviour excited the attention of the neighborhood. Several physicians were consulted; all of whom, except one, declared themselves unable to assign a cause for these singular affections of the children. This man, more ignorant, or more superstitious, than his companions, confessed his suspicion, that the children were bewitched. The declaration appears to have been decisive. The connections of the children immediately applied themselves to fasting, and prayer; and summoned their friends to unite in their devotions. On the 11th of the following March, Mr. Paris invited several of the neighboring ministers to unite with him in prayer at his own house. It was observed, that during the religious exercises the children were generally decent, and still; and that after the service was ended, they renewed their former inexplicable conduct.

5. A few days before this, an Indian man and woman, servants in the house of Mr. Paris, formed a kind of magical cake; which like the *mola* among the Romans, was esteemed sacred in Mexico; the native country of the woman; and was supposed by these ignorant creatures, to possess an efficacy, sufficient to detect the authors of the witchcraft. This cake was given to the house dog, as having the common canine prerogative of corresponding with the invisible world. Soon after the spell was finished, the children, acquainted, probably, with its drift, and therefore naturally considering this

as the proper time to make disclosures, began to point out the authors of their misfortunes. The first person accused was the Indian woman herself; who was accordingly committed to prison; and after lying there some time, escaped without any further punishment, except being sold to defray the expense of her prosecution.

6. Two other women, of the names of Good, and Osborne; one, long sunk in melancholy, the other bedrid, were next accused by the children; and, after being examined, were also committed to prison. Within five weeks a Mrs. Corey, and a Mrs. Nurse, women of unblemished character, and professors of religion, were added to the number of the accused. Before the examination of Mrs. Corey, Mr. Noyes, minister of Salem, highly esteemed for his learning, piety, and benevolence, made a prayer. She was then vehemently accused by Mrs. Putnam, the mother of one of them, and by several other persons, who now declared themselves bewitched, of beating, pinching, strangling, and in various other ways afflicting them. Mrs. Putnam, particularly, complained of excruciating distress; and with loud, piercing shrieks, excited in the numerous spectators emotions of astonishment, pity, and indignation, bordering upon frenzy. Mrs. Corey was, of course, pronounced guilty, and imprisoned.—Soon after her commitment, a child of Sarah Good, the melancholy woman mentioned above, a child between four and five years old, was accused by the same woman of bewitching them; and accordingly was imprisoned.

7. In the mean time fasts were multiplied. Several public ones were kept by the inhabitants of the village; and, finally, a general fast was holden throughout the colony. By these successive solemnities the subject acquired a consideration literally sacred; and alarmed, and engrossed the minds of the whole community. Magistrates and clergymen gave to it the weight of their belief, and their reputation; led their fellow citizens into a labyrinth of error, and iniquity; and stained the character of their country, in the eye of all succeeding generations. Had Mr. Paris, instead of

listening to the complaints of the children in his family, and holding days of fasting and prayer, on so preposterous an occasion, corrected them severely; had the physician, mentioned above, instead of pronouncing them bewitched, administered to them a strong dose of Ipecacuanha; had the magistrates who received the accusations, and examined the accused, dismissed both, and ordered the accused to prison, or finally, had the judges of the superior court directed the first indictment to be quashed, and sent the prisoners home; the evil, in either of these stages, might undoubtedly have been stopped. But, unhappily, all these were efforts of reason which lay beyond the spirit of the times.

8. That Mr. Paris, Mr. Noyes, and Mr. Halé, believed the existence of the witchcraft in Salem Village, cannot be questioned. That they seem to have been men of a fair religious character must be acknowledged. But it must also be acknowledged, that both they and Messieurs Hawthorn and Corwin, the magistrates principally concerned, men of good character likewise, were, in the present case, rash and inexcusable. They were not merely deceived; but they deceived themselves and infatuated others. They were not merely zealous, but unjust. They received from persons unknown, injudicial proceedings as witnesses, evidence equally contradictory to law, to common sense, and to the scriptures. Spectral evidence, as it was termed; that is, evidence founded on apparitions, and other supernatural appearances, professed to be seen by the accusers, was the only basis of a train of capital convictions.

9. Children, incapable of understanding the things about which they gave testimony, were yet, at times, the only witnesses; and what was still worse, the very things which they testified, were put into their minds and mouths, by the examiners, in the questions which they asked. In one case, a man, named Samuel Wardwell, was tried, condemned, and executed, on the testimony of his wife and daughter, who appear to have accused him, merely for the sake of saving themselves. Soon after these examinations, the number of accusers,

and by necessary consequence of the accused also, multiplied to a most alarming degree. To recite the story would be useless, as well as painful. In substance, it would be little else than what has been already said. All those who were executed, denied the charge, and finally declared their innocence; although several of them, in the moment of terror, had made partial confessions of their guilt. A considerable number, for the same purpose, acknowledged themselves guilty, and thus escaped death. To such a degree did the frenzy prevail, that in the January following, the grand jury indicted almost fifty persons for witchcraft.

10. Nor was the evil confined to this neighbourhood. It soon spread into various parts of Essex, Middlesex, and Suffolk. Persons at Andover, Ipswich, Gloucester, Boston, and several other places, were accused by their neighbours, and others. For some time, the victims were selected only from the lower classes. It was not long, however, before the spirit of accusation began to lay hold on persons of more consequence. On the 8th of August, 1692, Mr. George Burroughs, who had formerly preached in Salem Village, and afterwards at Wells, in the province of Maine, was brought to trial for bewitching Mary Wadcott, an inhabitant of the village, and was condemned. Mr. English, a respectable merchant in Salem, and his wife; Messrs. Dudley and John Bradstreet, sons of the late Gov. Bradstreet; the wife of Mr. Hale; the lady of sir William Phipps, and the Secretary of Connecticut, were all among the accused. Mr. English and his wife fled to New-York. Mr. Dudley Bradstreet had already committed between thirty and forty persons for this supposed crime; but being weary and discouraged, declined any further interference in the business. Upon this, he was charged with having killed nine persons by witchcraft; and was obliged to flee to the District of Maine. His brother John being accused of having bewitched a dog, and riding upon his back, fled into New-Hampshire. At Andover, a dog was accused of bewitching several human beings, and put to death.

11. The evil now became too great to be borne. A man, named Giles Corey, had been pressed to death for refusing to plead; and nineteen persons had been executed. More than one third of these were members of the Christian Church; and more than one half had borne an unblemished character. [One hundred and fifty] were in prison; two hundred others were accused. Suspense and terror spread through the colony. Neither age nor sex, neither ignorance nor innocence, neither learning nor piety, neither reputation nor office, furnished the least security. Multitudes appear to have accused others, merely to save themselves. Among the accused, not a small number confessed themselves guilty, for the same reason; for by a strange inversion of judicial process, those who confessed the crime escaped; while those who protested their innocence, died without proof, and without mercy.

12. While the mischief was thus rolling up to a mountainous size, the principal persons in the colony began seriously to ask themselves where it would end. A conviction began to spread that the proceedings were rash, and indefensible. Mr. Hale probably changed his opinion, because his wife was accused. The same consideration undoubtedly influenced sir William Phipps. A respectable man in Boston, having been accused by some persons at Andover, arrested his accusers for defamation; and laid his damages at a thousand pounds. In consequence of this spirited conduct, the frenzy in that town disappeared. In other places, the distresses, the fair character, and the apparent innocence of many of the sufferers, wrought silently, but powerfully, on the people at large. At the last special court of Oyer and Terminer, holden on this subject, of fifty who were brought to trial, all were acquitted, except three; and these were reprieved by the governor. These events were followed by a general release of those who had been imprisoned. Thus the cloud which had so long hung over the colony, slowly and sullenly retired; and like the darkness of Egypt, was to the great joy of the distressed inhabitants, succeeded by serenity and sunshine.

13. At this period, and for some time after, attempts were made in various places to revive these persecutions; but they failed of success. It has been said that an inhabitant of Northampton accused one of his neighbours of bewitching him to the Hon. Mr. Partridge, a very respectable magistrate in Hatfield. This gentleman, understanding perfectly the nature of the accusation, and foreseeing the mischiefs which would spring from any serious attention to it, told the accuser, that, as it was not in his power to try the cause immediately, he would hold a court at Northampton for that purpose, on a special day of the succeeding week; but that he could now finish a part of the business. It was a rule of law, he said, that the informant should, in various cases, receive half of what was adjudged. { A person convicted of witchcraft, was by law punished with twenty stripes. He should, therefore, order ten of these to the accuser. They were accordingly inflicted on the spot. At the appointed time the court was opened at Northampton; but no accuser appeared.

14. This confessedly illegal, but exemplary, wise, and just administration, smothered the evil here in its birth. Had measures equally wise been adopted throughout the colony, the story of New-England witchcraft would never have been told. From this period the belief of witchcraft seems gradually, and almost entirely, to have vanished from New England. There is, perhaps, no country in the world, whose inhabitants more generally treat the whole train of invisible beings which people the regions of superstition and credulity, with less respect, or who distinguish religion from its counterfeits with more universality, or correctness. Even conjurers and fortunetellers, who so easily fascinate the curiosity of mankind, and acquire an importance in the eye of fancy which reason reprobates, are generally regarded, here, with contempt and ridicule.

QUESTIONS.

1. When and where were the first executions in New England for witchcraft?—2. When and where was the next execution for this supposed crime, about thirty years afterwards?—

3. What is said of executions in England for witchcraft?—4. When and under what circumstances was the subject in Salem made a matter of public interest?—5. How many persons were indicted for witchcraft, by the Grand Jury of Salem, in January 1693?—6. What was the greatest number imprisoned at one time?—7. Of accused!—8. How many had been executed?—9. How was the progress of the evil checked at Northampton?

GENERAL OGLETHORPE.

1. THE life of general Oglethorpe, the founder of Georgia, would require but little embellishment to make it a tale of romance. It was full of variety, adventure, and achievement. His ruling passions were the love of glory, of his country, and of mankind, and these were so blended together in his mind that they formed but one principle of action. He was a hero, a statesman, an orator, the patron of letters, the chosen friend of men of genius, and the theme of praise for great poets.

2. In his youth, after having been the confidential aid-de-camp of the earl of Peterborough, whom he resembled in his restless activity of mind and body, he early attracted the notice of the great duke of Marlborough, and afterwards served with distinguished reputation under prince Eugene, in Germany, Hungary, and Turkey. From his boyhood he uniformly enjoyed the friendship and confidence of his gallant and eloquent countryman, John, duke of Argyle, who, in an animated speech in parliament, bore splendid testimony to his military talents, his natural generosity, his contempt for danger, and his devotion to the public weal.

3. Passing from the camp to the senate, he soon became conspicuous for his manly independence, and still more for the ardour and purity of his benevolence. Anticipating the labours of Howard, he plunged into the dark and pestilential dungeons, in which prisoners for debt in England were at that time confined, dragged to light the most atrocious abuses, restored to freedom multitudes who had long suffered under legal oppres-

sion, and obtained public and exemplary punishment of the men who had been guilty of these outrages against justice and humanity.

4. Soon after this a colony was projected, which, without any prospect of profit or remuneration to those who directed it, had in view the double object of relieving England from some portion of the daily increasing burden of her pauperism, and of opening an avenue to useful and independent industry to those who had fallen into unmerited misfortune. General Oglethorpe was placed at the head of this enterprise, and entered upon it with that ardour which marked all his undertakings. Animated by the hope of gaining glory, and of doing good, he cheerfully expended a large portion of his private fortune, and encountered every variety of fatigue and danger.

5. It was in 1732, immediately after making a spirited and patriotic effort in parliament to restore a constitutional militia, and to abolish arbitrary impressment for the sea-service, that he left England to become the founder of the colony of Georgia. The suppression of the slave trade had also long engaged his attention, and under his auspices this infant colony set the example of a legal prohibition of this traffic in the blood of man.

6. Various untoward circumstances conspired to check the growth of the new settlement, and to frustrate the innumerable plans of agricultural and political improvement which were constantly suggested by the busy and fertile mind of the governor; and, in a few years, these labours were completely interrupted by the alarm of a Spanish and Indian war. The benign legislator and magistrate resumed, at once, the habits of his youth, and approved himself the hardy, daring, and adventurous soldier. By his unwearied activity, and the example of his personal courage, not less than by his military skill and enterprise, in the laborious southern campaigns of 1740 and 1742, he repelled the inroads of a far superior enemy, which threatened the subjugation of Georgia and the devastation of the Carolinas.

7. It was this fine combination of chivalry and philanthropy in the character of general Oglethorpe, graced as it was by a variety of accomplishments and the love of letters, that excited the warm admiration of Johnson, who intended to become his biographer—that called forth the eulogy of Pope, in those well known lines,

And driven by strong benevolence of soul,
Shall fly, like Oglethorpe, from pole to pole ;

and which induced Thomson to celebrate the praises of the founder of Savannah, among those of the most brilliant heroes and patriots of ancient or of English history—

Lo swarming southward on rejoicing suns
Gay colonies extend ; the calm retreat
Of undeserved distress, the better home
Of those whom bigots chase from foreign lands.
Not built on Rapine, Servitude, and Wo,
And in their turn some petty tyrant's prey ;
But bound by social freedom, firm they rise,
Such as of late an Oglethorpe has formed,
And crowding round, the pleas'd Savannah sees.

8. General Oglethorpe administered the affairs of the colony for about eleven years. He afterwards passed "without fear and without reproach," through many alternations of fortune, both in public and private life, constantly emulating Howard in the zeal and extent of his charity, and sustaining a character as a soldier and a gentleman, such as sir Philip Sidney or lord Falkland might have envied. His habitual temperance and activity preserved his health and faculties to extreme old age. He died in 1785, affording the first example, in modern times, of the founder of a colony who has lived to see that colony recognized by the world as a sovereign and independent state. Col. Daniel Boon, the adventurous founder of the state of Kentucky, is, perhaps, the only other instance of this remarkable distinction.

QUESTIONS.

1. With what philanthropist has general Oglethorpe been compared?—2. What was the object in founding Georgia?—3. What law was passed in Georgia concerning slavery, on its first settlement?—4. At what age and when did he die?—5. What resemblance is there between his life and that of Col. Daniel Boone, the founder of Kentucky?

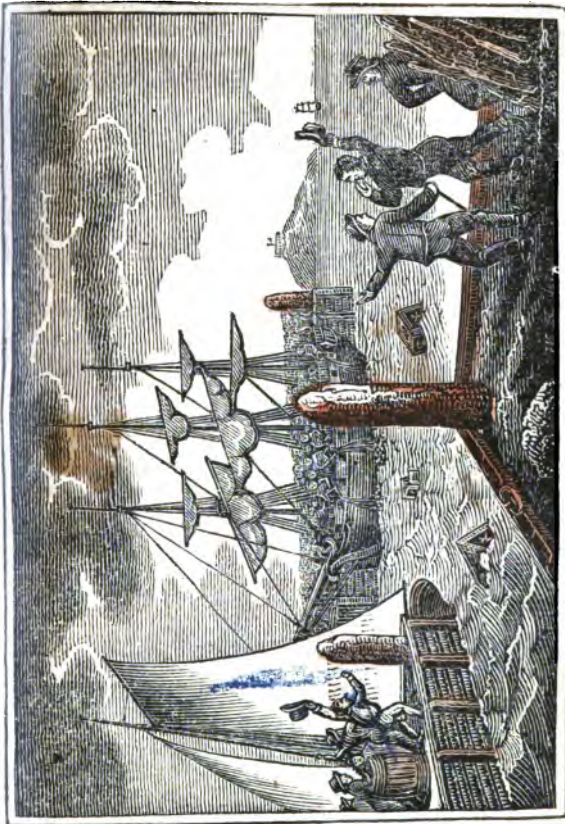
BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

SEE on yon dark'ning height bold Franklin tread,
 Heaven's awful thunders rolling o'er his head;
 Convolving clouds the billowy skies deform,
 And forked flames emblaze the black'ning storm.
 See the descending streams around him burn,
 Glance on his rod, and with his guidance turn;
 He bids conflicting heav'ns their blast expire,
 Curbs the fierce blaze, and holds th' imprison'd fire.
 No more, when folding storms the vault o'erspread,
 The livid glare shall strike thy face with dread;
 Nor tow'rs nor temples, shudd'ring with the sound,
 Sink in the flames, and spread destruction round.
 His daring toils, the threat'ning blasts that wait,
 Shall teach mankind to ward the bolts of fate;
 The pointed steel o'ertop th' ascending spire,
 And lead o'er trembling walls the harmless fire;
 In his glad fame while distant worlds rejoice,
 Far as the lightnings shine, or thunders raise their voice.

DESTRUCTION OF TEA AT BOSTON.

1. AFTER the act of the British parliament, laying a duty on paper, glass, tea, &c. was repealed, with the exception of tea, on which the duty was continued, associations were entered into in all the colonies of North America, to discourage the use of it. The consumption was of course greatly diminished, and the tea accumulated in the English warehouses. The East India Company sought relief from government, and

No. 5.



DESTRUCTION OF TEA IN BOSTON HARBOR.

urged them to take off the duty on importation in America, and double the duty on exportation in England. This proposal, which would have produced nearly the same result as to the amount of revenue received, and have obviated one serious cause of dispute, was declined.

2. The ministry, bent on levying their American duty, thought this tea the most useful article for the experiment. They calculated that this luxury, which, from long habit and extensive use, had become almost a necessary of life, would inevitably find purchasers, in spite of all private associations or patriotic agreements. In this case, as in many others, they reposed a false confidence in their estimate of human character; and forgot that some general maxims, however just in ordinary times, may be inapplicable in great emergencies, even among a people more corrupt and effeminate, than those whom they were now endeavouring to subdue. But to meet the wishes of the company, a drawback was given in England, equal to the duty which they had asked to have removed, and a guarantee against loss, in the experiment of making shipments of tea to the colonies.

3. Large shipments of tea were made to the principal ports of the continent, and a general ferment prevailed over every part of the country. (It was not only determined that the tea itself should not be received; but whoever made use of this (ministerially) obnoxious herb, was regarded as an enemy to the country.) The utmost vigilance was employed to prevent its being consumed by those persons, whose innocent daily comforts were thus involved in the vortex of national contention; a rigid inquisition was every where enforced for this purpose, that on other grounds would have been both odious and absurd, but was justified by the necessity of combating, in this familiar shape, a principle, which was shortly after to be resisted by open war.

4. Long before the ships arrived with the tea, arrangements were made to avert the threatened mischief. In many cases, the consignees were induced to

decline accepting the charge of it. (Very spirited resolutions were entered into at a public meeting of the citizens in Philadelphia, with which the consignees complied by resigning their appointment. From that city, and from New-York (it was sent back to England in the same ships that brought it.) In Charleston, it was landed, and stored expressly in damp warehouses, where it was destroyed by the humidity.) In Boston, it was destined to a more violent destruction.

5. Two of the vessels, with the tea, arrived on Saturday, November 27th. A town meeting was held on Monday following, and resolutions were passed similar to those of Philadelphia, calling on the consignees, among whom were two sons of governor Hutchinson, to decline the charge of it. A vote was then passed with acclamations, "that the tea shall not be landed, that no duty shall be paid, and that it shall be sent back in the same bottoms." After this vote, Mr. Quincy, a young and eloquent advocate, and ardent patriot, with a strong perception of the events that would follow from the measure now in contemplation, and wishing to try the spirit, and to increase the energy of his fellow citizens, by setting before them, in a strong light, the consequences that might be expected from their resolves, addressed the meeting in the following terms:

6. "It is not, Mr. Moderator, the spirit that vapours within these walls, that must stand us in stead. The exertions of this day will call forth events, which will make a very different spirit necessary for our own salvation. Whoever supposes, that shouts and hosannas will terminate the trials of the day, entertains a childish fancy. We must be grossly ignorant of the importance and value of the prize for which we contend; we must be equally ignorant of the power of those combined against us; we must be blind to that malice, inveteracy, and insatiable revenge, which actuate our enemies, public and private, abroad and in our bosom, to hope that we shall end this controversy without the sharpest conflicts,—to flatter ourselves that popular resolves, popular harangues, popular acclamations, and popular vapour, will vanquish our foes. Let us consider the issue.

Let us look to the end. Let us weigh and consider, before we advance to those measures, which must bring on the most trying and terrible struggle this country ever saw."

7. The vote was again submitted to the meeting, and was again passed unanimously. A guard for the protection of the vessels was appointed, which protection included the protection of the public against the landing of the tea. This guard of twenty-five men, were respectable citizens, volunteers, and acting under the direction of the committee of correspondence. The meeting was then adjourned to the next day. When the town were again assembled, the answer of the consignees was read—they refused the proposition to send it back, but offered to store it. The sheriff came in, and read a proclamation from the governor, ordering the meeting to disperse, which was received with one universal hiss. Votes were passed, ordering the owners and captains of the vessels not to suffer the tea to be landed. Attempts were made, in the mean time, to negotiate, and induce the merchants, and the custom-house, to clear out the tea, and send it back. All was in vain.

8. At length, the time was expiring, when the tea could remain any longer in this situation; the patience of the inhabitants was exhausted; the anxiety and watching were too troublesome to be further endured. A meeting, according to previous notification, was held on the 15th of December, at the Old South Church, when Mr. Rotch, the owner of the largest parcel of tea, attended, and after much difficulty, he was persuaded to apply to the custom-house for a clearance, and the meeting adjourned, to hear the result, till the next morning. Ten gentlemen accompanied him to the custom-house, and the clearance was refused in a peremptory manner. A vote of the meeting was then passed, ordering him to protest against this refusal, and a deputation was sent with him to governor Hutchinson, who was at his country seat on Milton-Hill, seven miles from Boston, to entreat him to grant a pass that the vessel might leave the harbour.

9. In the mean time, various speeches were made in the meeting to keep the people together, which were said to amount to six or seven thousand persons. Mr. John Rowe, an eminent merchant and patriotic citizen, who was, doubtless, in the secret of the measures that were to be taken in the last resort, hinted, in the form of inquiry, "Who knows how tea will mix with salt water?" which was received with applause. At length, about sun-down, the deputation returned from the governor, with his refusal to grant the pass. A few minutes after, a band of eighteen or twenty young men, who had been prepared for the event, went by the meeting house, giving a shout. It was echoed by some within; others exclaimed, "the Mohawks are come!" The assembly broke up, and a part of it followed this body of young men to Griffin's-wharf, (now called Liverpool-wharf,) on the south side of the town.

10. Three different parties, composed of trust-worthy persons, many of whom in after life were among the most respectable citizens of the town, had been prepared, in conformity to the secret resolves of the political leaders, to act as circumstances should require. One or two of these parties, wore a kind of Indian disguise. They were seventy or eighty in all; and when every attempt had failed to have the tea returned, and the final refusal of the governor to interfere was received, it was immediately made known to them, and they proceeded at once to throw the obnoxious merchandise into the water. This was done with as much good order and regularity, as if the tea had been discharged in the ordinary way. The chests were hoisted upon the decks, broken open, and their contents emptied over the side of the ship into the channel. A large crowd of people was collected, who were quiet spectators of the operation, which was completed in the course of the evening; and after the work was finished, the actors and spectators calmly retired to their several homes.

11. Of all the tea, which was three hundred and forty-two chests, the whole quantity saved is contained in a small phial still in existence. One of the opera-

tors, on his return home, found his shoes filled with it; this he put into a bottle, and sealed up. Not a pound of the tea was purloined. One of the persons engaged in the business, who wished to preserve too large a specimen, was observed by some of his companions to have the pockets of his coat a little distended. This was treated as an accident, which was remedied, however, in a good natured way, without resistance, by the application of a knife across the waist of the coat, which left a kind of garment, that has, in later times, been called a *spencer*, and the part separated was thrown overboard to accompany its kindred tea. The most scrupulous care was taken that none of it should be secreted. The shores of the harbour, at high water mark, were lined with it the next day, as with other worthless weeds. A chest, containing a few pounds, floated into a creek in Dorchester, where it was discovered, brought into town, and publicly committed to the flames.

QUESTIONS.

1. What proposition did the East India Company propose to obviate the difficulty concerning tea?—2. What measures were adopted by the citizens of America, when large shipments of tea were made?—3. What was done in Philadelphia and New-York?—4. In Charleston?—5. How many persons were engaged in throwing overboard the tea in Boston harbour?—6. How much was there thrown overboard?—7. Is any of it still preserved?—8. How came it to be preserved?

FIRST AMERICAN CONGRESS.

From the Vision of Columbus.

COLUMBUS look'd; and still around them spread,
 From south to north, th' immeasurable shade;
 At last, the central shadows burst away,
 And rising regions open'd on the day.
 He saw, once more, bright Del'ware's silver stream,
 And Penn's throng'd city cast a cheerful gleam;
 The dome of state, that met his eager eye,

Now heav'd its arches in a loftier sky.
The bursting gates unfold—and lo, within,
A solemn train, in conscious glory, shine.
The well-known forms his eye had trac'd before,
In diff'rent realms along th' extended shore ;
Here grac'd with nobler fame, and rob'd in state,
They look'd and mov'd magnificently great.

High on the foremost seat, in living light,
Majestic Randolph caught the hero's sight—
Fair on his head, the civic crown was plac'd,
And the first dignity his sceptre grac'd.
He opes the cause, and points in prospect far,
Through all the toils that wait th' impending war,
But, hapless sage, thy reign must soon be o'er,
To lend thy lustre, and to shine no more.
So the bright morning star, from shades of ev'n,
Leads up the dawn, and lights the front of heav'n,
Points to the waking world the sun's broad way,
Then veils his own, and shines above the day.
And see great Washington behind thee rise,
Thy following sun, to gild our morning skies ;
O'er shadowy climes to pour th' enliv'ning flame,
The charms of freedom and the fire of fame.
Th' ascending chief adorn'd his splendid seat,
Like Randolph, ensign'd with a crown of state,
Where the green patriot bay beheld, with pride,
The hero's laurel springing by its side ;
His sword hung useless, on his graceful thigh,
On Britain still he cast a filial eye ;
But sovereign fortitude his visage bore,
To meet their legions on th' invaded shore.

Sage Franklin next arose, in awful mien,
And smil'd, unruffled, o'er th' approaching scene ;
High, on his locks of age, a wreath was brao'd,
Palm of all arts, that e'er a mortal grac'd ;
Beneath him lies the sceptres kings have borne,
And crowns and laurels from their temples torn.
Nash, Rutledge, Jefferson, in council great,
And Jay and Laurens op'd the rolls of fate.
The Livingstons, fair freedom's generous band,

The Less, the Houstons, fathers of the land,
 O'er climes and kingdoms turn'd their ardent eyes,
 Bade all th' oppress'd to speedy vengeance rise ;
 All powers of state, in their extended plan,
 Rise from consent to shield the rights of man.
 Bold Wolcott urg'd the all-important cause ;
 With steady hand the solemn scene he draws ;
 Undaunted firmness with his wisdom join'd,
 Nor kings nor worlds could warp his stedfast mind.

Now, graceful rising from his purple throne,
 In radiant robes, immortal Hosmer shone ;
 Myrtles and bays his learned temples bound,
 The statesman's wreath, the poet's garland crown'd—
 Morals and laws expand his liberal soul,
 Beam from his eyes, and in his accents roll.
 But lo ! an unseen hand the curtain drew ;
 And snatch'd the patriot from the hero's view ;
 Wrapp'd in the shroud of death, he sees descend
 The guide of nations and the muse's friend.
 Columbus dropp'd a tear. The angel's eye
 Trac'd the freed spirit mounting through the sky.

Adams, enrag'd, a broken charter bore,
 And lawless acts of ministerial power ;
 Some injur'd right in each loose leaf appears,
 A king in terrors and a land in tears ;
 From all the guileful plots the vale he drew,
 With eye retortive look'd creation through ;
 Op'd the wide range of nature's boundless plan,
 Trac'd all the steps of liberty and man ;
 Crowds rose to vengeance while his accents rung,
 And independence thunder'd from his tongue.

BATTLE OF BUNKER'S HILL.

1. WHETHER he was deceived by the resemblance of name, or from some other motive unknown, colonel Prescott, instead of repairing to the heights of Bunker's Hill, to fortify himself there, advanced further on in the peninsula, and immediately commenced his intrench-

ments upon the heights of Breed's Hill, another eminence, which overlooks Charlestown, and is situated towards the extremity of the peninsula, nearer to Boston. The works were pushed with so much ardour, that the following morning, by day break, the Americans had already constructed a square redoubt, capable of affording them some shelter from the enemy's fire. The labour had been conducted with such silence, that the English had no suspicion of what was passing. It was about four in the morning, when the captain of a ship of war first perceived it, and began to play his artillery. The report of the cannon attracted a multitude of spectators to the shore.

2. The English generals doubted the testimony of their senses. Meanwhile the thing appeared too important not to endeavour to dislodge the provincials, or, at least, to prevent them from completing the fortification commenced; for as the height of Breed's Hill absolutely commands Boston, the town was no longer tenable, if the Americans erected a battery upon this eminence. The English, therefore, opened a general fire of the artillery of the town, of the fleet, and of the floating batteries stationed around the peninsulas of Boston. It hailed a tempest of bombs and balls upon the works of the Americans—they were especially incommoded by the fire of a battery planted upon an eminence named Cop's Hill, which, situated within the town, forms a species of tower in front of Breed's Hill. But all this was without effect. The Americans continued to work the whole day, with unshaken constancy; and towards night, they had already much advanced a trench, which descended from the redoubt to the foot of the hill, and almost to the bank of Mystic river. The fury of the enemy's artillery, it is true, had prevented them from carrying it to perfection.

3. In this conjuncture, there remained no other hope for the English generals, but in attempting an assault, to drive the Americans, by dint of force, from this formidable position. This resolution was taken without hesitation; and it was followed, the 17th of June, 1775, by the action of Breed's Hill, known also by the name

of Bunker's Hill; much renowned for the intrepidity, not to say the temerity, of the parties; for the number of the dead and wounded; and for the effect it produced upon the opinions of men, in regard to the valour of the Americans, and the probable issue of the whole war.

4. Between mid-day and one o'clock, the heat being intense, all was motion in the British camp. A multitude of sloops and boats, filled with soldiers, left the shore of Boston, and stood for Charlestown; they landed at Moreton's Point, without meeting resistance; as the ships of war and armed vessels effectually protected the debarkation with the fire of their artillery, which forced the enemy to keep within his intrenchments. This corps consisted of ten companies of grenadiers, as many of light-infantry, and a proportionate artillery; the whole under the command of major-general Howe, and brigadier general Pigot. The troops, on landing, began to display, the light infantry upon the right, the grenadiers upon the left; but, having observed the strength of the position, and the good countenance of the Americans, general Howe made a halt, and sent to call a reinforcement.

5. The English formed themselves in two columns. Their plan was, that the left wing, under general Pigot, should attack the provincials in Charlestown; while the centre assaulted the redoubt; and the right wing, consisting of light infantry, should force the passage near the river Mystic, and thus assail the Americans in flank and rear; which would give the English complete victory. It appears, also, that general Gage had formed the design of setting fire to Charlestown, when evacuated by the enemy, in order that the corps, destined to assail the redoubt, thus protected by the flame and smoke, might be less exposed to the fire of the provincials.

6. The dispositions having been all completed, the English put themselves in motion. The provincials, that were stationed to defend Charlestown, fearing lest the assailants should penetrate between this town and

the redoubt, and thus to find themselves cut off from the rest of the army, retreated. The English immediately entered the town, and fired the buildings—as they were of wood, in a moment the combustion became general. They continued a slow march against the redoubt and trench; halting, from time to time, for the artillery to come up, and act with some effect, previous to the assault. The flames and smoke of Charlestown were of no use to them, as the wind turned them in a contrary direction.

7. Their gradual advance, and the extreme clearness of the air, permitted the Americans to level their muskets. They, however, suffered the enemy to approach, before they commenced their fire; and waited for the assault, in profound tranquillity. It would be difficult to paint the scene of terror presented by these circumstances. A large town, all enveloped in flames, which, excited by a violent wind, rose to an immense height, and spread every moment more and more; an innumerable multitude, rushing from all parts, to witness so unusual a spectacle, and see the issue of the sanguinary conflict that was about to commence. The Bostonians, and soldiers of the garrison, not in actual service, were mounted upon the spires, upon the roofs, and upon the heights. The hills, and circumjacent fields, from which the dread arena could be viewed in safety, were covered with swarms of spectators, of every rank, and age, and sex; each agitated by fear or hope, according to the party he espoused.

8. The English, having advanced within reach of the musketry, the Americans showered upon them a volley of bullets. This terrible fire was so well supported, and so well directed, that the ranks of the assailants were soon thinned and broken—they retired, in disorder, to the place of their landing—some threw themselves precipitately into the boats. The field of battle was covered with the slain. The officers were seen running hither and thither, with promises, with exhortations, and with menaces, attempting to rally the soldiers, and inspire them for a second attack.

Finally, after the most painful efforts, they resumed their ranks, and marched up to the enemy. The Americans reserved their fire, as before, until their approach, and received them with the same deluge of balls. The English, overwhelmed and routed, again fled to the shore. In this perilous moment, general Howe remained for some time alone upon the field of battle—all the officers, who surrounded him, were killed or wounded. It is related that, at this critical conjuncture, upon which depended the issue of the day, general Clinton, who, from Cop's Hill, examined all the movements, on seeing the destruction of his troops, immediately resolved to fly to their succour.

9. This experienced commander, by an able movement, re-established order; and, seconded by the officers, who felt all the importance of success to English honour and the course of events, he led the troops to a third attack. It was directed against the redoubt, at three several points. The artillery of the ships not only prevented all reinforcements from coming to the Americans, by the isthmus of Charlestown, but even uncovered, and swept the interior of the trench, which was battered in front at the same time. The ammunition of the Americans was nearly exhausted, and they could have no hopes of a recruit. Their fire must, of necessity, languish. Meanwhile, the English had advanced to the foot of the redoubt. The provincials, destitute of bayonets, defended themselves valiantly with the butt end of their muskets. But the redoubt being already full of enemies, the American general gave the signal of retreat, and drew off his men.

10. While the left wing and centre of the English army were thus engaged, the light infantry had impetuously attacked the palisades, which the provincials had erected, in haste, upon the bank of the river Mystic. On the one side, and on the other, the combat was obstinate; and if the assault was furious, the resistance was not feeble. In spite of all the efforts of the royal troops, the provincials still maintained the battle in this part; and had no thoughts of retiring, until they saw the redoubt and upper part of the trench were in the

power of the enemy. Their retreat was executed with an order not to have been expected from new levied soldiers. This strenuous resistance of the left wing of the American army was, in effect, the salvation of the rest; for, if it had given ground but a few instants sooner, the enemy's light infantry would have taken the main body and right wing in the rear, and their situation would have been hopeless.

11. But the Americans had not yet reached the term of their toils and dangers. The only way that remained of retreat, was by the isthmus of Charlestown; and the English had placed there a ship of war and two floating batteries, the balls of which raked every part of it. The Americans, however, issued from the peninsula, without any considerable loss. It was during the retreat, that Dr. Warren received his death. Finding the corps he commanded hotly pursued by the enemy, despising all danger, he stood alone before the ranks, endeavouring to rally his troops, and to encourage them by his own example. He reminded them of the mottos inscribed on their ensigns; on one side of which were these words—"An Appeal to Heaven;" and on the other—"Qui transtulit, sustinet;" meaning, the same Providence which brought their ancestors through so many perils, to a place of refuge, would also deign to support their descendants.

12. An English officer perceived Dr. Warren, and knew him; he borrowed the musket of one of his soldiers, and hit him with a ball, either in the head or in the breast. He fell dead upon the spot. The Americans were apprehensive lest the English, availing themselves of victory, should sally out of the peninsula, and attack the head-quarters at Cambridge. But they contented themselves with taking possession of Bunker's Hill, where they entrenched themselves, in order to guard the entrance of the neck against any new enterprise on the part of the enemy. The provincials, having the same suspicion, fortified Prospect Hill, which is situated at the mouth of the isthmus, on the side of the main land. But neither the one nor the other were disposed to hazard any new movement;

the first, discouraged by the loss of so many men, and the second, by that of the field of battle and the peninsula. The provincials had to regret five pieces of cannon, with a great number of utensils, employed in fortification, and no little camp equipage.

13. General Howe was greatly blamed, by some, for having chosen to attack the Americans, by directing his battery in front against the fortifications upon Breed's Hill, and the trench that descended towards the sea, on the part of Mystic river.) It was thought, that if he had landed a respectable detachment upon the isthmus of Charlestown, an operation, which the assistance of the ships of war and floating batteries would have rendered perfectly easy to him, it would have compelled the Americans to evacuate the peninsula, without the necessity of coming to a sanguinary engagement. They would thus, in effect, have been deprived of all communication with their camp, situated without the peninsula; and, on the part of the sea, they could have hoped for no retreat, as it was commanded by the English.

14. In this mode, the desired object would, therefore, have been obtained without the sacrifice of men. Such, it is said, was the plan of general Clinton; but it was rejected, so great was the confidence reposed in the bravery and discipline of the English soldiers, and in the cowardice of the Americans. The first of these opinions was not, in truth, without foundation; but the second was absolutely chimerical, and evinced more of intellectual darkness in the English, than of prudence, and just notions upon a state of things. By this fatal error, the bravery of the Americans was confirmed; the English army debilitated; the spirit of the soldiers, and perhaps the final event of the whole contest, decided.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was the battle of Bunker's Hill fought?—2. Why was Breed's Hill fortified instead of Bunker's Hill?—3. Why were the English so desirous to dislodge the Americans from Breed's Hill?—4. How many times did the English approach

the redoubt before they drove the Americans from it?—5. Why were the English induced to burn Charlestown?—6. How came Dr. Warren by his death?—7. In what important particular has it been thought that general Howe erred?

BURNING OF CHARLESTOWN.

1. THE horror of the scene of Bunker's Hill was increased by the conflagration of Charlestown, effected during the heat of the battle, by the orders of Gen. Gage. Charlestown, besides two hundred other buildings, contained at that time, six public edifices, and about four hundred dwelling houses. In justification of this wanton act of barbarity, it was given out, that the American troops had stationed themselves in these buildings, and under their covert successfully annoyed their enemies. The truth is, there were no American troops in the town. What may have been the motives which produced the devastation, it is impossible to determine.

2. It may have been the indulgence of revenge; or an intention to strike terror into the Americans, and to teach them, that their towns were universally destined to the flames. It may have been an expectation of adding to the confusion of the day, and of giving in this manner a favourable issue to the conflict. Whatever was the motive, it is probable, that the buildings were regarded as belonging to the rebels, and as being, therefore, of little value. But this act was unnecessary, useless, and wanton; and must attach to the authors of it perpetual infamy. Two thousand people were in a moment deprived of their habitations, furniture, and other necessities; and property amounting to one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling, perished in the flames.

3. Nor was this conflagration less unwise, than wicked. Instead of terror, it excited only rage—instead of producing submission, it roused a more determined hostility. The attack in the field was such as war authorizes; was on men, and on soldiers; and could be easily

forgotten. Here the assault was made on the man of grey hairs, the defenceless female, and the cradled infant. It edged, therefore, a resentment, already keen—a breach, which before was wide, it rendered immeasurable.

4. In Europe, where events of this nature have received a dreadful kind of justification from immemorial custom, towns and cities perish, and their inhabitants are consigned to ruin, without resentment or surprise. Scarcely a sigh is breathed, or a tear falls, at the recital of the melancholy tale. But America was in her youth; and the scene was here a novelty. The genuine emotions of nature, approved by reason, and founded in truth, sprang up, therefore, instinctively in every bosom. On the soundest principles, every man, when he heard the story, determined that no plea could be alleged for this piece of cruelty. The sufferings of the inhabitants he regarded with intense pity, and the authors of them with loathing and horror.

5. But unjust and unworthy, as the burning of Charlestown was, its flames wonderfully enhanced the dreadful magnificence of the day. To the volleys of musketry, and the roar of cannon; to the shouts of the fighting, and the groans of the dying; to the dark and awful atmosphere of smoke, enveloping the whole peninsula, and illumined in every quarter by the streams of fire from the various instruments of death, the conflagration of six hundred buildings added a gloomy and amazing grandeur. In the midst of this waving lake of flame, the lofty steeple, converted into a blazing pyramid of fire, towered, and trembled over the vast pyre; and finished the scene of desolation.

QUESTIONS.

1. By whose orders was Charlestown burnt?—2. How many buildings did it contain?—3. What was the alleged reason for burning it?—4. Was the burning of Charlestown favourable to the British?

GENERAL LYMAN.

1. Few Americans have a better claim to the remembrance of posterity, than major-general Phineas Lyman, of (Suffield,) Connecticut; and the history of few men, who have been natives of it, can be more interesting. He graduated at Yale College, in 1738, aged twenty-two years. When a senior sophister, he was chosen one of the Berkleian scholars, and in 1739 was appointed a tutor. In this office he continued three years, with much reputation. He then devoted himself to the profession of the law, in which he soon became eminent. In 1755, he was appointed major-general and commander-in-chief of the Connecticut forces; and he held this office until the Canadian war was ended. He then went as commander-in-chief of the American troops in the expedition to the Havana, in the year 1762. In all these employments he rendered important services to his country; and acquired a high reputation for wisdom, integrity, bravery, military skill, and every honourable characteristic of a soldier.

2. During the whole course of the war, besides the high testimony given to his worth by the state, he received many others; particularly from the British officers who were his companions in service; by several of whom he was holden in peculiar esteem. By these gentlemen, he was so advantageously spoken of in Great Britain, that an invitation was given him by some persons in high office to visit that country.—A company had been formed, by his exertions, under the name of Military Adventurers; composed chiefly of such as had been officers, during the preceding war. Their object was to obtain from the British government a considerable tract of land, bordering on the rivers Mississippi and Yazoo—on this tract they proposed to plant themselves, and as large a colony of their countrymen as they could induce to join them. General Lyman went to England as agent for this company; and entertained not a doubt, that his application would be immediately successful.

3. Soon after his arrival, his own friends in the ministry were removed. Those who succeeded them, had other friends to provide for; and found it convenient to forget his services. For a while, his open heart admitted the encouragements given to him in London; and charitably construed the specious reasons, alleged for successive delays, in the most favourable manner. After dragging several tedious years in the melancholy employment of listening to court promises, he found, in spite of all his preconceptions, that the men, with whom his business lay, trifled alike with his interests and their own integrity. Shocked at the degradation which he must sustain, by returning to his own country without accomplishing his design, and of appearing as a dupe of court hypocrisy, where he had never appeared but with dignity and honour, he probably, though not without many struggles, resolved to lay his bones in Britain. But, after eleven of the best years of his life being frittered away in this manner, the tract of land in question was granted to the petitioners, and he was induced to revisit his native country. Many of the petitioners, however, were in the grave; others were already hoary with age; and all of them were removed beyond that period of life, at which men are willing to plant themselves in a wilderness, lying under a new climate, and a thousand miles from their homes.

4. His return to Connecticut was in 1774, where he remained a short time, and then with his eldest son, and a few companions, embarked for the Mississippi to make some preparation for the reception of his family, who were soon to follow. Accordingly the family, together with a small number of their friends, in the following year, was planted in the neighbourhood of Natches; a town originally built by the French on the eastern side of the Mississippi, one hundred and eighty miles north of New Orleans by land, and twice that distance by water. The little colony remained in this place till the breaking out of the Spanish war in 1781, when hearing that an armed force was ascending the river, they resolved to seek their flight through an immense wilderness, inhabited by savages, to Savannah.

in Georgia, the nearest post in the possession of the English. From the Spaniards they had every thing to fear. A flight through the wilderness involved distresses without number; but presented a possibility of safety. These unfortunate people determined, therefore, to attempt it without hesitation. But they wandered before reaching Savannah one hundred and forty-nine days, and according to their reckoning, more than one thousand three hundred and fifty miles.

5. The dangers and hardships, which they encountered in their progress, resembled more the adventures of knight-errantry, than the occurrences of real life. The caravan was numerous; including women and children, as well as men—some of the children infants at the breast. They were all mounted on horseback; but the ruggedness of the ground obliged such as were able to walk, to make a great part of their way on foot. The country through which they passed was intersected by numerous, and those often broad and deep, rivers. Steep and lofty mountains, equally difficult to climb, and to descend, obstructed their path. Marshes impassable forced them to take long tedious circuits. The rivers they were obliged to swim on horseback; and in attempting to cross one of them, several of their number had well nigh perished. Their sufferings from the dread of wild beasts and savages were incessant. The Choctaws, through whose territory, and along whose borders, their journey lay for a great extent, had espoused the Spanish interest; and of course become their enemies—and from Indian enemies no concealment, no speed, no distance, can furnish safety. The most quiet, the most secure moments, are, like the silence before a stroke of lightning, a mere prelude to danger and death.

6. Famine, also, threatened them in their best circumstances; and frequently stared them in the face. Once they were reduced to their last morsel. Often they suffered intensely from thirst. In one instance, when both they and their horses were nearly famished, a lady who was of their company, wandered in search of water some distance from their encampment; and

found a small spot, which exhibited on its surface a degree of moisture. She scraped away the earth with her hands; and, having hollowed out a basin of considerable size, saw it soon partially filled with about a quart of perfectly pure and sweet water. Having assuaged her own thirst, she called the rest of the company; who, together with their horses, all drank at this little spot, until they were satisfied; the water returning regularly to the same height, as soon as it was exhausted. It ought not to be forgotten, that disease attacked them in various instances; and obliged those who were well, to halt for the recovery of the sick.

7. One instance of the perilous situation in which they were placed deserves particular notice. About two days before they reached the first village of the Creeks, which was on their way, their provisions were exhausted. As they had lived for some time on a scanty allowance, many of them had lost both their strength and spirits. How long it would be before a new supply could be obtained, it was impossible to determine. In this situation, those who suffered most severely, gave themselves up to despair; and, pronouncing all further efforts fruitless, concluded to die on the spot. It was with no small difficulty, that their more robust and resolute companions persuaded them to renew their exertions for a short time, and to proceed with a slow and heavy progress on their journey. At the moment when every hope was vanishing, they discovered that they were in the neighbourhood of this village.

8. Three of their company were then deputed to go forward, make known their wants, and if possible, obtain relief from the savages. Colonel McGillivray, who for several years exercised an entire controul over the Creek nations, had for some time resided in this place; but unfortunately was now absent. As they approached the village, the Indians observed, that their saddles were such as were used by the Virginians, and enemies. In vain they asserted, that they were subjects of the king of Great Britain, and friends of the

Creeks. The saddles refuted their assertions. About seventy of the savages formed a circle around the messengers. In vain did they allege the defenceless state of themselves and their company; the presence of their women and children; their destitution of arms, and even of bread; and the frank, friendly manner, in which they had entered the village.

9. The expedition, however, still appeared mysterious to the Indians; the motives which led to it strange and inexplicable; and the unfortunate saddles decisively contradictory to all their professions. An earnest, and in the end a very vehement debate commenced among them, of which only a few ill boding words were understood by the messengers—such as *Virginian*, *long knife*, *no good*, and some others. From these they determined, upon the best grounds, that their fate was nearly, if not quite decided. At the same time, every warrior seized his knife; every face became distorted with wrath; and every eye lighted up with fierce and gloomy vengeance. At this desperate moment, a black servant of Col. McGillivray returning from abroad, entered the circle, and demanded the cause of the tumult. The Indians replied, that these strangers were Virginians, as was clearly proved by their saddles; that, of course, they were bad men, enemies to the Creeks, and to their father the king of Great Britain; and that, therefore, they ought immediately to be killed.

10. The black fellow then asked the messengers who and whence they were, and what was their errand to their village. To these inquiries they returned an answer with which he was perfectly satisfied. He then told the Indians, that they had wholly mistaken the character of the men; that they were not Virginians, but British subjects, good men, and friends to the Creeks; that they were in distress, and instead of being killed, ought therefore to be instantly relieved. When he found that his remonstrances did not satisfy the Indians, and that they still believed the messengers to be Virginians, he called them rascals, fools, and mad-men. This abuse they took very patiently, without attempting a reply; but still declared themselves wholly un-

satisfied. At length one, more moderate than the rest, said, "If they are Englishmen, as they profess, they can make paper talk;" meaning, that if they were Englishmen, they must have kept a journal, which they could now read for the satisfaction of the Creeks.

11. The black fellow, seizing the hint, asked the messengers whether they had kept any such journal. They replied in the negative. He then asked them whether they had any written paper about them—observing that it would answer the purpose equally well. One of them, examining his pockets, found an old letter. From this letter the black desired him to read a history of the expedition; and promised to interpret it to the Indians. Accordingly, looking on the letter as if he was reading it, he briefly recited the adventures of himself and his companions, from the time when they left Natches. The black fellow interpreted sentence by sentence; and the Indians listened with profound attention. As the recital went on, their countenances, which at the sight of the letter had begun to relax, gradually softened; and before it was finished, the gloom gave way to a smile, and the ferocity was succeeded by friendship. The whole body put up their knives; and, coming one by one to the messengers, took them cordially by the hand; welcomed them to their village; declared themselves satisfied that they were good men, and Englishmen; and promised them all the assistance in their power. With these joyful tidings the messengers set out for their company; and brought them immediately to the village. Here they were entertained with a kindness and hospitality, as honourable to the Indians, as it was necessary to themselves; and rested, until they were recruited for their journey.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where did general Lyman live before leaving Connecticut?
- 2. What induced him to go to England?—3. How long did he remain there?—4. Where did he and his family settle on leaving Connecticut?—5. Why and when did they leave Natches?—6. What was the distance of their route to Savannah?

—7. How long were they performing it?—8. Why were they suspected by the Creek Indians, of being Virginians?—9. How were the Creeks convinced of their mistake?

EXCISION OF WYOMING.

1. INHABITANTS of Connecticut had planted on the eastern branch of the Susquehanna, towards the extremity of Pennsylvania, and upon the road of Oswego, the settlement of Wyoming. Populous and flourishing, its prosperity was the subject of admiration. It consisted of eight townships, each containing a square of five miles, beautifully situated on both sides of the river. The mildness of the climate answered to the fertility of the soil. The inhabitants were strangers alike to excessive wealth, which elates and depraves; and to poverty, which discourages and degrades. All lived in a happy mediocrity, frugal of their own, and coveting nothing from others. Incessantly occupied in rural toils, they avoided idleness, and all the vices of which it is the source.

2. In a word, this little country presented, in reality, the image of those fabulous times which the poets have described under the name of the *Golden Age*. But their domestic felicity was no counterpoise to the zeal with which they were animated for the common cause; they took up arms and flew to succour their country. It is said they had furnished to the army no less than a thousand soldiers, a number truly prodigious for so feeble a population, and so happy in their homes. Yet notwithstanding the drain of all this vigorous youth, the abundance of harvests sustained no diminution. Their crowded granaries, and pastures replenished with fat cattle, offered an exhaustless resource to the American army.

3. But neither so many advantages, nor even the retired situation of these unfortunate colonists, could exempt them from the baneful influence of party spirit. Although the tories, as they called them, were not so numerous as the partisans of liberty, yet they challen-

ged attention by the arrogance of their character, and the extent of their pretensions. Hence, not only families were seen armed against families, but even sons sided against their fathers, brothers against brothers, and, at last, wives against their husbands. So true it is, that no virtue is proof against the fanaticism of opinion, and no happiness against political division.

4. The tories were, besides, exasperated by their losses in the excursions they had made in company with the savages in the preceding campaign. But that which envenomed them the most was, that several individuals of the same party, who, having quitted their habitations, were come to claim hospitality, then so much in honour among the Americans, and particularly at Wyoming, had been arrested as suspected persons, and sent to take their trial in Connecticut. Others had been expelled from the colony. Thus hatreds continued more and more rancorous. The tories swore revenge—they coalesced with the Indians. The time was favourable, as the youth of Wyoming were then at the army. In order the better to secure success, and to surprise their enemies before they should think of standing upon their defence, they resorted to artifice. They pretended the most friendly dispositions, while they meditated only war and revenge.

5. A few weeks before they prepared to execute their horrid enterprise, they sent several messages, charged with protestations of their earnest desire to cultivate peace. These perfidies lulled the inhabitants of Wyoming into a deceitful security, while they procured the tories and savages the means of concerting with their partisans, and of observing the immediate state of the colony. Notwithstanding the solemn assurances of the Indians, the colonists, as it often happens when great calamities are about to fall on a people, seemed to have a sort of pre-sentiment of their approaching fate. They wrote to Washington, praying him to send immediate assistance. Their despatches did not reach him—they were intercepted by the Pennsylvania loyalists; and they would, besides, have arrived too late. The savages had already made their

appearance upon the frontiers of the colony—the plunder they had made there was of little importance, but the cruelties they had perpetrated were affrightful—the mournful prelude of those more terrible scenes which were shortly to follow!

6. About the commencement of the month of July, 1778; the Indians suddenly appeared in force upon the banks of the Susquehanna. They were headed by a Col. John Butler, and a person of the name of Brandt, both of mixed blood, together with other chiefs of their nation, distinguished by their extreme ferocity in the preceding expeditions. This troop amounted in all to sixteen hundred men, of whom less than a fourth were Indians, and the rest were tories, disguised and painted to resemble them—the officers, however, wore the uniforms of their rank, and had the appearance of regulars. The colonists of Wyoming finding their friends so remote, and their enemies so near, had constructed for their security four forts, in which, and upon different points of the frontier, they had distributed about five hundred men.

7. The whole colony was placed under the command of Zebulun Butler, cousin of John, a man who, with some courage, was totally devoid of capacity. He was even accused of treachery; but this imputation is not proved. It is at least certain, that one of the forts, which stood nearest the frontiers, was entrusted to soldiers infected with the opinions of the tories, and gave it up, without resistance, at the first approach of the enemy. The second, on being vigorously assaulted, surrendered at discretion. The savages spared, it is true, the women and children; but butchered all the rest without exception. Zebulun then withdrew, with all his people, into the principal fort, called Kingston. The old men, the women, the children, the sick, in a word, all that were unable to bear arms, repaired thither in throngs, and uttering lamentable cries, as to the last refuge where any hope of safety remained.

8. The position was susceptible of defence; and if Zebulun had held firm, he might have hoped to withstand the enemy, until the arrival of succours. But

John Butler was lavish of promises in order to draw him out, in which he succeeded, by persuading him, that if he would consent to a parley in the open field, the siege would soon be raised, and every thing accommodated. John retired, in fact, with all his corps; Zebulun afterwards marched out to the place appointed for the conference, at a considerable distance from the fort; from motives of caution, he took with him four hundred men, well armed, being nearly the whole strength of the garrison. If this step was not dictated by treachery, it must, at least, be attributed to a very strange simplicity.

9. Having come to the spot agreed on, Zebulun found no living being there. Reluctant to return without an interview, he advanced towards the foot of a mountain, at a still greater distance from the fort, hoping he might find some person to confer with. The farther he proceeded in this dismal solitude, the more he had occasion to remark that no token appeared of the presence or vicinity of human creatures. But far from halting, as if impelled by an irresistible destiny, he continued his march. The country, meanwhile, began to be over-shaded by thick forests; at length, in a winding path, he perceived a flag, which seemed to wave him on. The individual who bore it, as if afraid of treachery from his side, retired as he advanced, still making the same signals. But already the Indians, who knew the country, profiting by the obscurity of the woods, had completely surrounded him. The unfortunate American, without suspicion of the peril he was in, continued to press forward, in order to assure the traitors that he would not betray them. He was awakened but too soon from this dream of security; in an instant the savages sprung from their ambush, and fell upon him with hideous yells.

10. He formed his little troop into a compact column, and showed more presence of mind in danger than he had manifested in negotiations. Though surprised, the Americans exhibited such vigour and resolution that the advantage was rather on their side; when a soldier, either from treachery or cowardice, cried out aloud—

"The colonel has ordered a retreat." The Americans immediately break, the savages leap in among the ranks, and a horrible carnage ensues. The fugitives fall by missiles, the resisting by clubs and tomahawks. The wounded overturn those that are not; the dead and the dying are heaped together promiscuously. Happy those who expire the soonest! The savages reserve the living for tortures! and the infuriate tories, if other arms fail them, mangle the prisoners with their nails! Never was rout so deplorable; never was massacre accompanied with so many horrors. Nearly all the Americans perished; about sixty escaped from the butchery, and with Zebulun, made their way good to a redoubt upon the other bank of the Susquehanna.

11. The conquerors invested Kingston anew; and to dismay the relics of the garrison by the most execrable spectacle, they hurled into the place above two hundred scalps, still reeking with the blood of their slaughtered brethren. Colonel Dennison, who commanded the fort, seeing the impossibility of defence, sent out a flag to inquire of Butler what terms would be allowed the garrison, on surrendering the fort. He answered, with all the fellness of his inhuman character, and in a single word—the *hatchet*. Reduced to this dreadful extremity, the colonel still made what resistance he could. At length, having lost almost all his soldiers, he surrendered at discretion. The savages entered the fort, and began to drag out the vanquished; who, knowing the hands they were in, expected no mercy. But, impatient of the tediousness of murder in detail, the barbarians afterwards bethought themselves of enclosing the men, women, and children, promiscuously in the houses and barracks, to which they set fire, and consumed all within; listening, delighted, to the moans and shrieks of the expiring multitude.

12. The fort of Wilkesbarre still remained in the power of the the colonists of Wyoming. The victors presented themselves before it; those within, hoping to find mercy, surrendered at discretion, and without resistance. But if opposition exasperated these ferocious men, or rather these tigers, insatiable of human

blood, submission did not soften them. Their rage was principally exercised upon the soldiers of the garrison; all of whom they put to death, with a barbarity ingenious in tortures. As for the rest, men, women, and children, who appeared to them not to merit any special attention, they burned them as before, in the houses and barracks.) The forts being fallen into their hands, the barbarians proceeded, without obstacle, to the devastation of the country. They employed at once, sword, fire, and all instruments of destruction. The crops, of every description, were consigned to the flames. The habitations, granaries, and other constructions, the fruit of years of human industry, sunk in ruin under the destructive strokes of these cannibals.

QUESTIONS.

1. Where was the settlement of Wyoming?—2. By whom was it made?—3. How many soldiers did they furnish the American army?—4. Why did not the despatches, sent to Washington for relief, reach him?—5. When did the Excision of Wyoming take place?—6. Under whose command was the colony placed?—7. What became of the women and children in forts Kingston and Wilkesbarre?

NEW-ENGLAND.

HAIL to the land whereon we tread,
 Our fondest boast;
 The sepulchre of mighty dead,
 The truest hearts that ever bled,
 Who sleep on glory's brightest bed,
 A fearless host;
 No slave is here—our unchain'd feet
 Walk freely, as the waves that beat
 Our coast.

Our fathers cross'd the ocean's wave
 To seek this shore;
 They left behind the coward slave
 To welter in his living grave;
 With hearts unbent, high, steady, brave,
 They sternly bore

Such toils as meaner souls had quell'd ;
 But souls like these, such toils impell'd
 To sear.

Hail to the morn, when first they stood
 On Bunker's height ;
 And fearless stemm'd th' invading flood,
 And wrote our dearest rights in blood,
 And mow'd in ranks the hireling brood,
 In desp'rate fight ;
 O ! 'twas a proud, exulting day,
 For ev'n our fallen fortunes lay
 In light.

There is no other land like thee,
 No dearer shore ;
 Thou art the shelter of the free ;
 The home, the port of liberty
 Thou hast been, and shall ever be,
 Till time is o'er.
 Ere I forget to think upon
 My land, shall mother curse the son
 She bore.

Thou art the firm, unshaken rock,
 On which we rest ;
 And, rising from the hardy stock,
 Thy sons the tyrant's frown shall mock,
 And slavery's galling chains unlock,
 And free th' oppress'd—
 All who the wreath of freedom twine,
 Beneath the shadow of their vine,
 Are blest.

We love thy rude and rocky shore,
 And here we stand—
 Let foreign navies hasten o'er,
 And on our heads their fury pour,
 And peal their cannon's loudest roar,
 And storm our land ;
 They still shall find our lives are giv'n
 To die for home ; and leant on heav'n
 Our hand.

TORNADO IN BARBADOES.

1. It was now the month of October, 1780, and the inhabitants of the islands were in the enjoyment of that unexpected tranquillity which resulted from the cessation of arms, when their shores, and the seas that washed them, were assailed by so dreadful a tempest, that scarcely would there be found a similar example in the whole series of maritime records, however replete with shocking disasters and pitiable shipwrecks. If this fearful scourge fell with more or less violence upon all the islands of the West Indies, it no where raged with more destructive energy than in the flourishing island of Barbadoes. It was on the morning of the tenth, that the tornado set in, and it hardly began to abate forty-eight hours after. The vessels that were moored in the port, where they were considered in safety, were wrenched from their anchors, launched into the open sea, and abandoned to the mercy of the tempest. Nor was the condition of the inhabitants on shore less worthy of compassion.

2. In the following night, the vehemence of the hurricane became yet more extreme; houses were demolished, trees uprooted, men and animals tossed hither and thither, or overwhelmed by the ruins. The capital of the island was well nigh raised to a level with the ground. The mansion of the governor, the walls of which were three feet in thickness, was shaken to its foundations, and every moment threatened to crumble in ruins. Those within had hastened to barricade the doors and windows, to resist the whirlwinds; all their efforts were of no avail. The doors were rent from their hinges, the bars and fastenings forced; and chasms started in the very walls. The governor, with his family, sought refuge in the subterraneous vaults; but they were soon driven from that shelter, by the torrents of water that poured like a new deluge from the sky.

3. They issued then into the open country; and, with extreme difficulty and continual perils, repaired under the covert of a mound, upon which the flag-staff

was erected; but that mass being itself rocked by the excessive fury of the wind, the apprehension of being buried under the stones that were detached from it, compelled them again to remove, and to retire from all habitation. Happily for them, they held together; for, without the mutual aid they lent each other, they must all inevitably have perished. After a long and toilsome march in the midst of ruins, they succeeded in gaining a battery, where they stretched themselves, face downward, on the ground, behind the carriages of the heaviest cannon, still a wretched and doubtful asylum, since those very carriages were continually put in motion by the impetuosity of the vortical gusts.

4. The other houses of the city being less solid, had been prostrated before that of the governor, and their unhappy inhabitants wandered as chance directed during that merciless night, without shelter and without succour. Many perished under the ruins of their dwellings; others were the victims of the sudden inundation; several were suffocated in the mire. The thickness of the darkness, the lurid fire of the lightning, the continual peal of the thunder, the horrible whistling of the winds and rain, the doleful cries of the dying, the despondent moans of those who were unable to succour them, the shrieks and wailings of women and children, all seemed to announce the destruction of the world. But the return of day presented to the view of the survivors a spectacle which the imagination scarcely dares to depict.

5. This island, lately so rich, so flourishing, so covered with enchanting landscapes, appeared all of a sudden transformed into one of those polar regions, where an eternal winter reigns. Not an edifice left standing; wrecks and ruins every where; every tree subverted; not an animal alive; the earth strown with their remains, intermingled with those of human beings; the very surface of the soil appeared no longer the same. Not merely the crops that were in prospect, and those already gathered, had been devoured by the hurricane; the gardens, the fields, those sources of the delight and opulence of the colonists, had ceased to exist. In their

place were found deep sand, or steril clay; the enclosures had disappeared; the ditches were filled up; the roads cut with deep ravines. The dead amounted to some thousands; thus much is known, though the precise number is not ascertained.

6. In effect, besides those whose fallen houses became their tombs, how many were swept away by the waves of the swollen sea and by the torrents, resembling rivers, which gushed from the hills! The wind blew with a violence so unheard of, that, if credit be given to the most solemn documents, a piece of cannon, which threw twelve pound balls, was transported from one battery to another at more than three hundred yards distance. Much of what escaped the fury of the tempest, fell a prey to the frantic violence of men. As soon as the gates of the prisons were burst, the criminals sallied forth, and, joining the negroes, always prepared for nefarious deeds, they seemed to brave the wrath of heaven, and put every thing to sack and plunder.

7 And perhaps the whites would have been all massacred, and the whole island consigned to perdition, if general Vaughan, who happened to be there at the time, had not watched over the public safety at the head of a body of regular troops. His cares were successful in saving a considerable quantity of provision, but for which resource the inhabitants would only have escaped the ravages of the hurricane, to be victims of the no less horrible scourge of famine. Nor should it be passed over in silence, by a sincere friend of truth and honourable deeds, that the Spanish prisoners of war, at this time considerably numerous in Barbadoes, under the conduct of Don Pedro San Jago, did every thing that could be expected of brave and generous soldiers. Far from profiting of this calamitous conjuncture to abuse their liberty, they voluntarily encountered perils of every kind to succour the unfortunate islanders, who warmly acknowledged their services.

AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE.

He that outliv'd that day, and came safe back
From those sharp conflicts, which the same assur'd,
Shall stand on tiptoe, when that day is nam'd,
And rouse him at the sound of independence.

They who liv'd through those times and see old age,
Shall yearly feast among their countrymen,
And some shall strip their sleeves and show their scars.

Familiar in our mouths, as household words,
Shall be the names of Washington, and Warren,
Hancock, and Adams, Hamilton, and Green,
Knox, Franklin, Lincoln; and full many others
Shall in our flowing cups be fresh remember'd.
Our Independence, then, shall ne'er go by,
From this day to the ending of the world;
But its first founders we'll commemorate.

FRENCH BASTILLE.

1. WHILE the Bastille remained in the power of the crown, the revolutionists could not think themselves in security. On the 14th of July, A. D. 1789, that awful fortress of despotism, of which the name for ages inspired terror, was invested by a mixed multitude of citizens, and soldiers who had joined the popular banner. De Launay, the governor, displayed a flag of truce, and demanded a parley; but, abusing the confidence which that signal inspired, he discharged a heavy fire of cannon and musketry on the besiegers. This act of treachery, far from intimidating the people, only inflamed their rage; and rendered them desperate. They renewed the attack with a valour raised to frenzy. The Bastille was carried by assault. The governor being seized, was instantly massacred, and his head carried in triumph through the streets of the capital.

2. In the gloomy apartments of this justly dreaded state prison, which had so long been sacred to silence

and despair, was found, amongst other engines of cruelty, an iron cage, containing the skeleton of a man, who had probably lingered out a considerable part of his existence in that horrid abode. Amongst the prisoners released by the destruction of this fortress, were major White, a native of Scotland, and the count de Lorges; the former appeared to have his intellectual faculties greatly impaired by long confinement and misery, and, from being unaccustomed to converse with mankind, he had forgotten the use of speech; the latter was exhibited to the public in the Palais Royal; and his squalid appearance, his white beard, which descended to his waist, and his imbecility, the direful effect of imprisonment for thirty-two years, rendered him an object perfectly adapted to operate on the passions of every spectator. The bastille was levelled to the ground, and with it the despotism of the French monarchy fell prostrate in the dust.

3. Had the Parisians stopped at this point, their proceedings would have merited the applause of posterity. But tremendous riots in the capital and at Versailles, which menaced the lives of the king and queen, and the "gardes du corps," shewed that the fury of the populace was not yet satisfied. These, however, being only the acts of a frantic mob, were not productive of any important results. The popular frenzy at length began to subside, and the public tranquillity seemed to be restored.

4. The 14th of July, A. D. 1790, the anniversary of the capture of the Bastille, was distinguished by one of the most magnificent and interesting scenes ever exhibited in any age or country. This was the grand confederation celebrated at the "Champ du Mars,"—a piece of ground adjoining to Paris, about eight hundred yards in length, bounded on each side by lofty trees, and commanding at the farther extremity a view of the military academy. In the middle of this field an altar was erected, for the purpose of administering the civic oath; and around it was thrown up an immense amphitheatre, capable of containing four hundred thousand spectators; the entrance was through triumphal arch-

es; the king's throne was placed under an elegant pavilion; and on each side were seats for the members of the national assembly. Here the national guards of the departments, distinguished by their respective standards, the battalions of infantry, the troops of cavalry, &c. being ranged in military order, the king, the national assembly, and the armed citizens, bound themselves by a solemn oath to maintain the new constitution which the assembly had framed. The same oath was taken on the same day in every part of the kingdom.

5. The revolution now seemed to be completed, and every thing displayed an aspect of tranquillity. The French nation imagined that the poetical fiction of a golden age was realized. Many persons in England were also of the same opinion. But the glittering prospect was illusory, and direful events were in embryo. The king appears to have regarded the oath which he had taken as compulsory, and he saw himself divested of a great part of the power which he had inherited from his predecessors. His brothers, the count of Provence, now Lewis XVIII., and the count d'Artois, as well as prince de Conde, with some other princes of the blood, and several nobles of high rank and fortune, had, at the commencement of the disturbances, retired from France and found an asylum in Germany. Lewis XVI., conceiving himself to be laid under undue restrictions, resolved to adopt the same measure. In the night of the 20th of June, 1791, the king and queen, with their family, made their escape from Paris. But their plans being ill-concerted, and their mode of travelling calculated to excite suspicion, they were arrested at Varennes, in proceeding towards the German frontier, and re-conducted to the Tuilleries. This singular and unfortunate occurrence destroyed all confidence between the nation and the king.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was the French Bastile destroyed?—2. What conduct in the governor greatly enraged the populace?—3. What was the fate of the governor?—4. What took place on the anniversary of the destruction of the bastile?—5. What circumstance destroyed all confidence between the French people and the king?

THE WISE CHOICE.

I would not wear the warrior's wreath ;
 I would not court his crown ;
 For love and virtue sink beneath
 His dark and vengeful frown.

I would not seek my fame to build
 On glory's dizzy height ;
 Her temple is with orphans fill'd—
 Blood soils her sceptre bright.

I would not wear the diadem,
 By folly priz'd so dear ;
 For want and wo hath bought each gem,
 And every pearl's a tear.

I would not heap the golden chest,
 That sordid spirits crave ;
 For every grain (by penury curst,)
 Is gathered from the grave.

No ;—let my wreath unsullied be—
 My fame be virtuous youth ;
 My wealth be kindness, charity—
 My diadem be truth.

ABDALLAH AND SABAT.

1. ABDALLAH and Sabat were intimate friends, and being young men of family in Arabia, they agreed to travel together, and to visit foreign countries. They were both zealous Mahometans. Sabat was son of Ibrahim Sabat, a noble family of the line of Beni Sabat, who trace their pedigree to Mahomet. The two friends left Arabia, after paying their adorations at the tomb of their prophet at Mecca, and travelled through Persia, and thence to Cabul. Abdallah was appointed to an office of state under Zemaun Shah, king of the Cabul ;

and Sabat left him there, and proceeded on a tour through Tartary.

2. While Abdallah remained at Cabul, he was converted to the Christian faith by the perusal of a Bible (as is supposed) belonging to a Christian from Armenia, then residing at Cabul. In the Mahometan states, it is death for a man of rank to become a Christian.— Abdallah endeavoured for a time to conceal his conversion, but finding it no longer possible, he determined to flee to some of the Christian churches near the Caspian sea. He accordingly left Cabul in disguise, and had gained the great city of Bochara, in Tartary, when he was met in the streets of that city by his friend Sabat, who immediately recognized him.

3. Sabat had heard of his conversion and flight, and was filled with indignation at his conduct. Abdallah knew his danger, and threw himself at the feet of Sabat. He confessed that he was a Christian, and implored him, by the sacred tie of their former friendship, to let him escape with his life. "But, Sir," said Sabat, when relating the story himself; "*I had no pity.* I caused my servants to seize him, and I delivered him up to Morad Shah, king of Bochara.

4. "He was sentenced to die, and a herald went through the city of Bochara, announcing the time of his execution. An immense multitude attended, and the chief men of the city. I also went and stood near to Abdallah. He was offered his life if he would abjure Christ, the executioner standing by him with his sword in his hand. 'No,' said he, (as if the proposition were impossible to be complied with,) 'I cannot abjure Christ.' Then one of his hands was cut off at the wrist. He stood firm, his arm hanging by his side, with but little motion.

5. "A physician, by desire of the king, offered to heal the wound, if he would recant. He made no answer, but looked up steadfastly towards heaven, like Stephen the first martyr, his eye streaming with tears. He did not look with anger towards me. He looked at me, but it was benignly, and with the countenance of forgiveness. His other hand was then cut off. But,

air," said Sabat, in his imperfect English, "he never *changed*, he never *changed*. And when he bowed his head to receive the blow of death, all Bochara seemed to say, 'What new thing is this?'"

QUESTIONS.

1. Where did Abdallah and Sabat belong?—2. What was their religion?—3. Where and by what means did Abdallah become a Christian?—4. What is the consequence if a Mahometan of rank becomes a Christian?—5. By what means was Abdallah delivered to the king of Bochara for punishment?

THE LAND OF REST.

THERE is a calm for those who weep,
A rest for weary pilgrims found;
And while the mould'ring ashes sleep,
Low in the ground—

The Soul; of origin divine,
GOD's glorious image, freed from clay,
In heaven's eternal sphere shall shine,
A star of day !

The Sun is but a spark of fire,
A transient meteor in the sky;
The Soul, immortal as its Sire,
SHALL NEVER—DIE.

• THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1. THE history of the French revolution, and of the events which led to it, has hitherto been written only by party zealots, and those of no very commanding talents or extended views. When hereafter its Tacitus shall arise, what subjects will it afford for his philosophy and for his eloquence! Virtue and vice mixed in mad confusion; the basest passions and the noblest feelings,

on all sides, and often in the same breast, struggling together for the mastery.—France made glorious in a thousand hard-fought fields by the universal and unrivalled valour of Frenchmen.—France rendered up a trembling victim to tyrant after tyrant, by the universal cowardice of Frenchmen.—The female character in its greatest elevation and in its deepest depravity.—Woman, now dreadful with fiend-like intelligence and malignity, and now, exalted into more than Roman heroism by higher principles than Pagan antiquity ever knew.

2. Throughout the long and dreadful narrative, the historian will never lose sight of the meek and steady virtues of the patriot king. He will describe him, in early youth, in the midst of a corrupt and sensual court, forming his conscience and regulating his life by the mild and holy precepts of Fenelon; surrounded by bigoted or heartless politicians, yet glowing with affection for his people, and eagerly co-operating with the enlightened friends of freedom in the reform of abuses, the limitation of his own powers, and the establishment of popular rights. He will relate, that he staked every thing on this vast and bold experiment of regulated liberty and representative government; and at last voluntarily offered up his life in that cause, rather than purchase it at the expense of the blood of his countrymen. He will portray him, as the danger thickened, summoning all his virtues to his heart, and rising greater and greater in the hour of calamity.

3. Finally, the historian will paint the sorrows and the consolations of his prison—or rather, he will tell that touching story in the plain words of those who saw and loved him to the last; and then, as he follows the king to the place of his death, accompanied by his last and faithful friend, the venerable Abbe Edgeworth, he will insensibly catch that good man's pious enthusiasm, and with him, forgetting the wrongs of the patriot and the sorrows of the husband and the father, in his veneration of the saint and the martyr, he will exclaim at the foot of the scaffold, "Go, Son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven."

SILVER AND GOLD.

1. THE circulation of gold and silver in different ages and in different parts of the world, is a curious and interesting, but, in some respects, a difficult subject of investigation. It appears, that those metals were used as a medium of commerce (so early as in the time of Abraham,) and that they served as ornamental articles of dress, in a period little less remote; and, indeed, although we have no authentic information relative to this particular, it is extremely probable that gold and silver were used as ornaments before they were established as a medium of commerce, and the standard whereby to estimate the comparative value of other articles.

2. We may collect from sacred history, that gold and silver, as well as divers kinds of precious stones, were sufficiently plentiful in Egypt (at the time of the egress of the Israelites); and the valuable offerings of the people, for the construction of the tabernacle, with all the rich materials of which that structure was composed, as well as those used for the high priest's garments, and in the whole apparatus of religion, were furnished out of those treasures which they had carried out of that country; for no other channel can be discovered, or even with any appearance of probability imagined, by which the Israelites could at that period be supplied with such plenty of those valuable commodities; for they had not then obtained any wealth by the plunder of enemies; the spoils of Midian, being the first considerable acquisition of this kind after their departure from Egypt; and the Midianitish war was an event posterior to the construction of the tabernacle.

3. In regard to commerce, there is no where any mention made, nor the least appearance of any being carried on by the Israelites, whereby they could have obtained such a stock of valuable materials, so soon after their entrance into the wilderness. In their conquests of the land of Canaan, they appear to have sometimes made a considerable booty; but it is not until the reign of David that we observe that profusion

of wealth, which seems astonishing in a period of such remote antiquity. And the abundance of gold and silver which Jerusalem displayed in the succeeding reign of Solomon, has staggered the credulity of some readers of the Jewish nation.

4. It appears, however, that those metals were at that time very plentiful in (Egypt) and in several countries of Asia. The history of David's wars and conquests makes it appear evident, that very considerable quantities of gold and silver had, by some means, been introduced into the countries situated between the Euphrates and the Levant Sea; and it seems that this influx of wealth must have been, in a great measure, the effect of the trade carried on by the Tyrians and Egyptians with the eastern and southern parts of the world.

5. Still no historical documents exist, which can give us any certain information by what channel those vast quantities of gold and silver had entered into the countries, to which allusion was made; and we are equally left in the dark respecting the parts from whence those riches were brought, as there cannot be found in history, either ancient or modern, sacred or profane, the least hint that any mines of those metals existed in any of those countries; nor does history inform us in what part of the world they were found.

6. In this, as in many other historical subjects, we are entirely left to conjecture; and the most probable conjecture is, that the gold and silver of the ancient world was the produce of Africa, where those metals, especially gold, is known to abound, both in the interior and the eastern parts; especially in Monomopata, Monoemugi, and Sofala; which last is, by many, supposed to be the land of Ophir, to which Solomon's fleets used to sail; although others, with less probability, suppose it to have been the island of Ceylon, or some other part of India, or the oriental islands.

7. In whatever parts of Africa or Asia these metals were found, it is, however, highly probable, that they were introduced into Egypt, and the western parts of Asia, by the Arabian, Egyptian, and Tyrian merchants.

The Egyptians, especially, might bring a considerable part of them by their caravans, which, from time immemorial, used to travel into Ethiopia, under which name all the interior and southern parts of Africa were formerly comprehended; as the Ethiopian caravans in like manner traded into Egypt.

8. In the flourishing ages of Greece, gold and silver began to be plentifully introduced into that country, particularly after the conquest of Persia by Alexander, which caused the wealth of that empire to circulate westward. All this while Rome was exceedingly poor, and her warlike citizens possessed a very small quantity of those valuable metals, until the conquest of Macedonia, and the Grecian kingdoms of Asia, caused the riches of the east to flow into her bosom. After the Goths and other northern nations began to make successful inroads into the Roman empire, the plunder of its provinces put them in possession of part of its riches; and gold and silver, with which they had before been almost wholly unacquainted, began by those prædatory wars to be introduced among them.

9. After the total subversion of the western empire, those riches, which Rome had accumulated by so many centuries of successful rapine, were by degrees diffused over all Europe, and gold and silver introduced into the regions of the north. The abundance of gold and silver, which, as history informs us, was displayed with profusion, in the palaces, the dress, the arms, &c. of the ancients, seems astonishing, and almost incredible, to modern readers; and a person who examines the subject only in a superficial manner, is ready to ask this question—What is become of that abundance of those metals which was displayed in certain countries; for example, in Jerusalem and Judah, in ancient times? And why do we not see the same profusion of gold and silver in the present age, especially as the mines of America have produced such abundance?

10. The question is not of a difficult solution, and the answer is obvious. In the ages of antiquity, gold and silver were not so extensively diffused, nor so generally circulated, as at present. In the times here

under consideration, and in the countries of which our histories treat, wealth was concentrated within a contracted circle. Egypt, and that small district of Asia which extended from the Levant sea, and the Grecian Archipelago, to the Euphrates, with Assyria and Chaldaea, were the only countries where history, either sacred or profane, mentions any such abundance of gold and silver.

11. Those metals had not then circulated any farther from the countries where they were produced, and they were lodged in a few hands. They remained chiefly among the princes and grandees. Commerce had not at that period branched out into a sufficient number of ramifications to disseminate them among the people at large. This is the reason why such a profusion of them was seen in some particular palaces, and with some particular persons.

12. We read of the importation of those metals into the Israelitish dominions by Solomon's fleets; but it is highly probable, that this trade was monopolized by the crown; and, notwithstanding the extraordinary display of wealth in Jerusalem, we are not to suppose, that so great a quantity of gold and silver was in circulation among the farmers, tradesmen, and mechanics of Israel, as among those of several European countries; nor that the whole quantity accumulated in Solomon's kingdom would bear any comparison with the amount of the circulating cash of England and France.

13. The wealth then accumulated in one narrow corner, was afterwards dispersed among the Persians, then among the Greeks and Carthaginians, next among the Romans; and at last throughout all Europe, where no gold or silver had ever been disseminated before. The treasures, which appeared immense when concentrated within a narrow space, became small, when divided into so many portions, and dispersed into so many countries; and this circumstance made gold and silver extremely scarce, which had seemed so plentiful at a far more early period. Gold was indeed so scarce, that none was ever coined in England before the eigh-

teenth year of Edward the Third, A. D. 1345; nor any silver but pennies, half-pence, and farthings.

QUESTIONS.

1. How early is it known that silver and gold were used as a medium of commerce?—2. At what time in the Jewish history was there first an incredible quantity of these metals?—4. Where is it probable that the gold and silver of the ancient world was obtained?—4. How were they probably introduced into Egypt and the western part of Asia?—5. What has become of that abundance of these metals which was displayed in some ancient nations?—6. Why do they now appear less plenty than they then did?

THE STAR IN THE EAST.

THE night was moonless—Judah's shepherds kept
 Their starlight watch—their flocks around them slept.*
 To heaven's blue fields their wakeful eyes were turn'd,
 And to the fires that there eternal burn'd.
 Those azure regions had been peopled long,
 With Fancy's children, by the sons of song—
 And there, the simple shepherd, conning o'er
 His humble pittance of Chaldean lore,
 Saw, in the stillness of a starry night,
 The Swan and Eagle wing their silent flight;†
 And, from their spangled pinions, as they flew,
 On Israel's vales of verdure shower the dew—
 Saw there, the brilliant gems, that nightly flare,
 In the thin mist of Berenicé's hair;
 And there, Boötes roll his lucid wain,
 On sparkling wheels, along the ethereal plain;
 And there, the Pleiades, in tuneful gyre,
 Pursue forever the star-studded Lyre;

* See Luke, ii. 8—15.

† For the help of those wholly unacquainted with astronomy it is proper to observe, that the Swan, the Eagle, Berenice's lock, Boötes, the Pleiades, the Lyre, and Auriga or the Charioteer, are the names of constellations, or the parts of constellations, visible in the northern hemisphere—of course, in Judea.—Cynosure is the classical name of the Polestar.

And there, with bickering lash, heaven's Charioteer
Urge round the Cynosure his bright career.

While thus the shepherds watch'd the host of night,
O'er heaven's blue concave flash'd a sudden light.
The unrolling glory spread its folds divine,
O'er the green hills and vales of Palestine ;
And lo ! descending angels, hovering there,
Stretch'd their loose wings, and in the purple air,
Hung o'er the sleepless guardians of the fold ;—
When that high anthem, clear, and strong, and bold,
On wavy paths of trembling ether ran—
“ Glory to God—Benevolence to man—
Peace to the world ;”—and in full concert came,
From silver tubes, and harps of golden frame,
The loud and sweet response, whose choral strains
Lingered and languished on Judea's plains.
Yon living lamps, charm'd from their chambers blue,
By airs so heavenly, from the skies withdrew—
All ?—all, but one, that hung and burn'd alone,
And with mild lustre over Bethlehem shone.
Chaldea's sages saw that orb afar,
Glow unextinguished ;—'twas Salvation's Star.

BATTLE OF TRAFALGAR.

1. NELSON's column was steered about two points more to the north than Collingwood's, in order to cut off the enemy's escape into Cadiz—the lee line was, therefore, first engaged. “ See,” cried Nelson, pointing to the Royal Sovereign, as she steered right for the centre of the enemy's line, cut through it, astern of the Santa Anna three-decker, and engaged her at the muzzle of her guns on her starboard side—“ See how that noble fellow, Collingwood, carries his ship into action !” Collingwood delighted in being first in the heat of the fire ; and knowing the feelings of his commander, and old friend, turned to his captain, and exclaimed—“ Rotherham, what would Nelson give to be here !” Both of these brave officers, perhaps, at this moment thought

of Nelson with gratitude, for a circumstance which had occurred on the preceding day. Admiral Collingwood, with some of the captains, having gone on board the *Victory*, to receive instructions, Nelson inquired of him where his captain was? and was told in reply that they were not upon good terms with each other. "Terms!" said Nelson;—"good terms with each other!" Immediately he sent a boat for captain Rotherham; led him, as soon as he arrived, to Collingwood, and saying, "Look, yonder are the enemy!" bade them shake hands, like Englishmen.

2. The enemy continued to fire a gun at a time at the *Victory*, till they saw that a shot had passed through her main-top gallant sail; then they opened their broadsides, aiming chiefly at her rigging, in the hope of disabling her before she could close with them. Nelson, as usual, had hoisted several flags, lest one should be shot away. The enemy showed no colours till late in the action, when they began to feel the necessity of having them to strike. For this reason, the *Santissima Trinidad*, Nelson's old acquaintance, as he used to call her, was distinguished only by her four decks; and to the bow of this opponent he ordered the *Victory* to be steered. Meantime, an incessant raking fire was kept up upon the *Victory*. The admiral's secretary was one of the first who fell—he was killed by a cannon shot while conversing with Hardy.

3. Captain Adair, of the marines, with the help of a sailor, endeavoured to remove the body from Nelson's sight, who had a great regard for Mr. Scott; but he anxiously asked—"Is that poor Scott that's gone?" and being informed that it was indeed so, exclaimed—"Poor fellow!" Presently a double-headed shot struck a party of marines, and killed eight of them—upon which Nelson immediately desired captain Adair to disperse his men round the ship, that they might not suffer so much from being together. A few minutes afterwards, a shot struck the fore brace bits on the quarter deck, and passed between Nelson and Hardy, a splinter from the bit tearing off Hardy's buckle, and bruising his foot. Both stopped, and looked anxiously at each

other, each supposing the other to be wounded. Nelson then smiled, and said—"This is too warm work, Hardy, to last long."

4. The Victory had not yet returned a single gun—fifty of her men had been by this time killed or wounded, and her main-top mast, with all her studding sails, and their booms, shot away. Nelson declared, that in all his battles, he had seen nothing which surpassed the cool courage of his crew on this occasion. At four minutes past twelve, she opened her fire from both sides of her deck. It was not possible to break the enemy's line, without running on board one of their ships—Hardy informed him of this, and asked which he would prefer. Nelson replied—"Take your choice, Hardy, it does not signify much." The master was then ordered to put the helm to port, and the Victory ran on board the Redoubtable, just as her tiller-ropes were shot away. The French ship received her with a broadside; then instantly let down her lower deck ports, for fear of being boarded through them, and never afterwards fired a great gun during the action. Her tops, like those of all the enemy's ships, were filled with riflemen. Nelson never placed musketry in his tops; he had a strong dislike to the practice; not merely because it endangers setting fire to the sails, but also because it is a murderous sort of warfare, by which individuals may suffer, and a commander now and then be picked off, but which can never decide the fate of a general engagement.

5. Captain Harvey, in the Temeraire, fell on board the Redoubtable on the other side. Another enemy was in like manner on board the Temeraire—so that these four ships formed as compact a tier as if they had been moored together, their heads all lying the same way. The lieutenants of the Victory, seeing this, depressed their guns of the middle and lower decks, and fired with a diminished charge, lest the shot should pass through, and injure the Temeraire. And because there was danger that the Redoubtable might take fire from the lower deck guns, the muzzles of which touched her side when they were run out, the fireman of

each gun stood ready with a bucket of water ; which, as soon as the gun was discharged, he dashed into the hole made by the shot. An incessant fire was kept up from the Victory from both sides ; her larboard guns playing upon the Bucentaure and the huge Santissima Trinidad.

6. It had been part of Nelson's prayer, that the British fleet might be distinguished by humanity in the victory which he expected. Setting an example himself, he twice gave orders to cease firing upon the Redoubtable, supposing that she had struck, because her great guns were silent ; for, as she carried no flag, there was no means of instantly ascertaining the fact. From this ship, which he had thus twice spared, he received his death. A ball, fired from her mizen-top, which, in the then situation of the two vessels, was not more than fifteen yards from that part of the deck where he was standing, struck the epaulette on his left shoulder, about a quarter after one, just in the heat of the action. He fell upon his face, on the spot which was covered with his poor secretary's blood.

7. Hardy, who was a few steps from him, turning round, saw three men raising him up. "They have done for me at last, Hardy," said he. "I hope not!" cried Hardy. "Yes," he replied, "my back bone is shot through." Yet, even now, not for a moment losing his presence of mind, he observed, as they were carrying him down the ladder, that the tiller ropes, which had been shot away, were not yet replaced ; and ordered that new ones should be rove immediately—then, that he might not be seen by the crew, he took out his handkerchief, and covered his face and his stars. Had he but concealed these badges of honour from the enemy, England, perhaps, would not have had cause to receive with sorrow the news of the battle of Trafalgar.

8. The cockpit was crowded with wounded and dying men ; over whose bodies he was, with some difficulty, conveyed and laid upon a pallet in the midshipmen's birth. It was soon perceived, upon examination, that his wound was mortal. This, however, was concealed

from all, except captain Hardy, the chaplain, and the medical attendants. He himself being certain, from the sensation in his back, and the gush of blood which he felt momentarily within his breast, that no human care could avail him, insisted that the surgeon should leave him, and attend to those to whom he might be useful; "for," said he, "you can do nothing for me."

9. All that could be done was to fan him with paper, and frequently to give him lemonade, to alleviate his intense thirst. He was in great pain, and expressed much anxiety for the event of the action, which now began to declare itself. As often as a ship struck, the crew of the Victory hurraed; and at every hurra, a visible expression of joy gleamed in the eyes, and marked the countenance of the dying hero. But he became impatient to see captain Hardy; and as that officer, though often sent for, could not leave the deck, Nelson feared that some fatal cause prevented him, and repeatedly cried—"Will no one bring Hardy to me? He must be killed! He is surely dead!"

10. An hour and ten minutes elapsed, from the time when Nelson received his wound, before Hardy could come to him. They shook hands in silence; Hardy in vain struggling to suppress the feelings of that most painful, and yet sublimest moment. "Well, Hardy," said Nelson, "how goes the day with us?" "Very well," replied Hardy; "ten ships have struck; but five of their van have tacked, and show an intention of bearing down upon the Victory. I have called two or three of our fresh ships round, and have no doubt of giving them a drubbing." "I hope," said Nelson, "none of our ships have struck?" Hardy answered, "There is no fear of that." Then, and not till then, Nelson spoke of himself. "I am a dead man, Hardy," said he—"I am going fast—it will all be over with me soon. Come nearer to me. Let my dear lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me." Hardy observed, that he hoped Mr. Beatty could yet hold out some prospect of life. "Oh no!" he replied, "It is impossible." My back is shot through. Beatty will tell you so." Captain Hardy then, once

more, shook hands with him ; and, with a heart almost bursting, hastened upon deck.

11. By this time, all feeling below the breast was gone ; and Nelson, having made the surgeon ascertain this, said to him—" You know I am gone. I know it. I feel something rising in my breast"—putting his hand on his left side—" which tells me so." And, upon Beatty's inquiring whether his pain was very great ? he replied, " So great, that I wish I was dead." " Yet," said he, in a lower voice, " one would like to live a little longer too !" And, after a few minutes, in the same under tone, he added—" What would become of poor lady Hamilton, if she knew my situation !" Next to his country, she occupied his thoughts. Captain Hardy, some fifty minutes after he had left the cockpit, returned ; and again taking the hand of his dying friend and commander, congratulated him on having gained a complete victory. How many of the enemy were taken he did not know, as it was impossible to perceive them distinctly ; but fourteen or fifteen at least.

12. " That's well," cried Nelson ; " but I bargained for twenty." And then, in a stronger voice, he said—" Anchor, Hardy ; anchor." Hardy, upon this, hinted that admiral Collingwood would take upon himself the direction of affairs. " Not while I live, Hardy !" said the dying Nelson, ineffectually endeavouring to raise himself from his bed—" Do you anchor." His previous order for preparing to anchor had shown how clearly he foresaw the necessity of this. Presently, calling Hardy back, he said to him, in a low voice—" Don't throw me overboard"—and desired that he might be buried by his parents, unless it should please the king to order otherwise. Then, reverting to private feelings—" Take care of my dear lady Hamilton, Hardy—take care of poor lady Hamilton." " Kiss me, Hardy," said he. Hardy knelt down, and kissed his cheek ; and Nelson said, " Now I am satisfied. Thank God, I have done my duty." Hardy stood over him, in silence, for a moment or two ; then knelt again, and kissed his forehead. " Who is that ?" said Nelson ; and being

informed, he replied, "God bless you, Hardy." And Hardy then left him—forever.

13. Nelson now desired to be turned upon his right side, and said—"I wish I had not left the deck; for I shall soon be gone." Death was, indeed, rapidly approaching. He said to his chaplain—"Doctor, I have not been a *great* sinner"—and after a short pause, "Remember, that I leave lady Hamilton, and my daughter Horatia, as a legacy to my country." His articulation now became difficult; but he was distinctly heard to say, "Thank God, I have done my duty!" These words he repeatedly pronounced; and they were the last words which he uttered. He expired at thirty minutes after four—three hours and a quarter after he received his wound.

14. Within a quarter of an hour after Nelson was wounded, above fifty of the Victory's men fell by the enemy's musketry. They, however, on their part, were not idle; and it was not long before there were only two Frenchmen left alive in the mizen-top of the Redoubtable. One of them was the man who had given the fatal wound—but he did not live to boast what he had done. An old quarter-master had seen him fire; and easily recognised him, because he wore a glazed cocked hat and white frock. Two midshipmen, Mr. Collingwood and Mr. Pollard, kept firing at the top, and this quarter-master supplied them with cartridges. One of the Frenchmen, attempting to make his escape down the rigging, was shot by Mr. Pollard, and suddenly fell. But the old quarter-master, as he cried out, "That's he, that's he," and pointed at the other, who was coming forward to fire again, received a shot in his mouth, and fell dead. Both the midshipmen then fired, at the same time, and the fellow dropped into the mizen-top. When they took possession of the prize, it was found, that one ball passed through his head, and another through his breast.

15. The Redoubtable struck within twenty minutes after the fatal shot had been fired from her. During that time, she had been twice on fire, in her forechains
* in her forecastle. The French, as they had done

in other battles, made use, in this, of fire-balls, and other combustibles—implements of destruction, which other nations, from a sense of honour and humanity, have laid aside—which add to the sufferings of the wounded, without determining the issue of the combat—which, indeed, none but the cruel would employ, and which never can be successful against the brave. Once they succeeded in setting fire, from the Redoubtable, to some ropes and canvas on the Victory's booms. The cry ran through the ship; but it produced no confusion—the men displayed that perfect self-possession in danger, by which English seamen are characterised—they extinguished the flames on board their own ship, and then hastened to extinguish them in the enemy, by throwing buckets of water from the gangway.

16. What the English would have done from gallantry, some of the crew of the Santissima Trinidad did to save themselves. Unable to stand the tremendous fire of the Victory, whose larboard guns played against this great four-decker, and not knowing how else to escape them, nor where else to betake themselves for protection, many leapt overboard, and swam to the Victory; and were actually helped up her sides by the English during the action. The Spaniards began the battle with less vivacity than the French, but they continued it with greater firmness. The Argonauta and Bahama were defended till they had each lost about four hundred men—the St. Juan Nepomuceno lost three hundred and fifty. Often as the superiority of British courage had been proved against France upon the seas, it had never been more conspicuous than in this decisive conflict. Five of the English ships were engaged muzzle to muzzle with five of the French. In all five the French lowered their lower-deck ports, and deserted their guns; while the English continued deliberately to load and fire, till they had made their victory secure.

17. The total British loss in the battle of Trafalgar amounted to 1587. Twenty of the enemy struck; but unhappily the fleet did not anchor, as Nelson, almo

with his dying breath, had enjoined—~~a~~ gale came on from the south-west; some of the prizes went down; some went on shore; one effected its escape into Cadiz; others were destroyed; four only were saved, and those with the greatest exertions. The wounded Spaniards were sent on shore, an assurance being given that they should not serve till regularly exchanged; and the Spaniards, with a generous feeling, offered the use of their hospitals for their wounded enemies, pledging the honour of Spain that they should be carefully attended there. When the storm, after the action, drove some of the prizes upon the coast, they declared that the English, who were thus thrown into their hands, should not be considered as prisoners of war; and the Spanish soldiers gave up their own beds to their shipwrecked enemies.

QUESTIONS.

1. In what ship was Lord Nelson?—2. How many of the Victory's crew were killed before she commenced firing?—3. On board of what French ship did the Victory run?—4. From whence was the ball fired that struck Nelson?—5. How long did he live after being wounded?—6. How many of the Victory's men within a quarter of an hour fell by the enemy's musketry?—7. Did the person who shot Nelson escape alive?—8. How long after Nelson was wounded, before the Redoubtable struck?—9. Of what did the French make use, in this battle, not practised by other civilized nations?—10. How many men were killed on board the Argonauta and Bahama?—11. On board the St. Juan Nepomuceno?—12. What was the whole British loss?—13. How many of the French and Spanish ships struck to the English fleet?—14. How many of this number were saved by the British?—15. Why were they not all saved?

THE FIELD OF BATTLE.

The sun had disappear'd beneath the flood,
The watchful sentinels, with weary tread,
Measur'd the waning of the day of blood,
And careless trod among th' unburied dead.

The grass is wet, but not with wholesome dew;
Its verdure blushes deep with human gore;

And friends and foes promiscuously strew
This silent bed, at enmity no more.

How few of all who met with deadly zeal,
Knew well the causes of conflicting pride !
How fewer still could personally feel
The hatred which has lain them side by side !

I pity such by hard condition led
To be the passive instruments of power ;
Who sell their lives and liberty for bread
To satisfy the cravings of an hour.

No one so mean of all the brave who die,
But calls some sympathizing sorrow forth ;
Small is the share of grief that meets the eye,
Unnotic'd falls the tear for humble worth.

Few see the father bending o'er the son,
The sole sad prop on which his age depended ;
The helpless widow wandering alone,
And thousand houseless orphans unbefriended.

O could the wail of orphans reach his ear,
Or could he feel a parent's agony,
And see the widow'd mother's hopeless tear,
The sure and dreadful price of victory—

O could th' ambitious once approach, and view
The desolation his ambition made—
Methinks some milder method he'd pursue,
And quit forever war's unhallow'd trade.

O when will justice guide, and wisdom light,
And mercy to the great her rays impart ?
A splendid victory proves no conqueror right,
And worlds could never heal one broken heart.

What is a nation's honour, if the price
Is individual peace, and happiness ?
And what is glory, if her temple rise
Upon the base of national distress ?

Then if the certain fruits of war are woe,
 And the destruction of domestic bliss ;
 Ungather'd let the warrior's laurels grow—
 They must be poisonous in a soil like this.

HUMAN SLAVERY.

1. HISTORY presents to the eye of reason and humanity the shocking spectacle of an extensive system of slavery existing among the nations of antiquity. We have, in a general view of the social system of Rome, under the republican and imperial governments, seen the rigorous treatment of slaves in the early ages, and contemplated with pleasure the amelioration of their condition in the latter times of the republic, and under the government of the emperors. This happy change in the condition of slavery, proceeded from a variety of causes ; and the establishment of Christianity at length added its benign influence to soften the condition of those unfortunate mortals, who were placed in that abject and depressed state.

2. The Christian religion was, indeed, peculiarly calculated to produce this happy effect. By teaching that the slave and his master must appear without distinction before the tribunal of the impartial Judge of all mankind, it held out to the former a strong inducement to a patient acquiescence in his condition, while it inspired the latter with sentiments of humanity and benevolence towards those whom Providence had thus placed under his authority. And although the system of slavery was not absolutely abolished on the establishment of Christianity, its hardships were considerably mitigated ; for certainly no Christian, who was worthy of the name, could treat his slaves with unprovoked cruelty, or unnecessary rigour.

3. The subversion of the empire by the northern nations, by reducing slaves and their masters, for the most part, to the same state of villanage, under the feudal system, in a great measure annihilated the system of absolute personal slavery, as it had existed among

the Romans. The Turks, and other nations, who subverted the empire of the Caliphs, again introduced the Roman custom of condemning to slavery their prisoners of war; and the same system was, by way of retaliation, adopted by the (crusaders.)

4. After the enthusiastic frenzy of the religious wars had subsided, in proportion as the minds of men became more enlightened, as religion became better understood, and better practised, and as the advancement of commerce and civilization diffused wealth among the people, the system of slavery gradually disappeared, and the feudal system was, by a concurrence of causes, at last abolished in several parts of Europe. It is, however, a melancholy circumstance, that the extinction of slavery in Europe was so soon followed by its establishment in America. We have seen that various causes concurred, in such a manner, as rendered the effect inevitable. In this life, evil is invariably mixed with good, and we, finite creatures, are not able to comprehend the designs of a Providence, infinitely wise, in permitting those scenes of misery which the world so abundantly displays.

5. Slavery is a bitter cup, and we see what multitudes of mankind have been compelled to drink it, which naturally gives rise to this question—What right can be claimed by man, to exercise this tyranny over man, his fellow creature? To Christians, this is a question of the most serious importance, which they ought to endeavour to answer to their own consciences, as they believe that it must one day be answered before the tribunal of the eternal Judge, whose integrity all the gold and silver dug from the mines of the earth cannot bribe, whose omniscience no cunning can elude, and whose omnipotence no power can resist.

6. O for a lodge in some vast wilderness,
Some boundless contiguity of shade,
Where rumour of oppression and deceit,
Of unsuccessful or successful war,
Might never reach me more. My ear is pained,
My soul is sick, with every day's report

Of wrong and outrage, with which earth is filled.
 There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart,
 It does not feel for man; the natural bond
 Of brotherhood is severed as the flax
 That falls asunder at the touch of fire.
 He finds his fellow guilty of a skin
 Not coloured like his own; and having power
 To enforce the wrong, for such a worthy cause
 Dooms and devotes him as his lawful prey.
 Lands intersected by a narrow frith
 Abhor each other. Mountains interposed
 Make enemies of nations, who had else
 Like kindred drops been mingled into one.

7. Thus man devotes his brother, and destroys;
 And, worse than all, and most to be deplored
 As human nature's broadest, foulest blot,
 Chains him, and tasks him, and extracts his sweat
 With stripes, that Mercy, with a bleeding heart,
 Weeps when she sees inflicted on a beast.
 Then what is man? And what man, seeing this,
 And having human feelings, does not blush,
 And hang his head, to think himself a man?
 I would not have a slave to till my ground,
 To carry me, to fan me while I sleep,
 And tremble when I wake, for all the wealth
 That sinews, bought and sold, have ever earn'd.
 No—dear as freedom is, and in my heart's
 Just estimation prized above all price,
 I had much rather be myself the slave,
 And wear the bonds, than fasten them on him.

QUESTIONS.

1. Did human slavery extensively prevail among ancient nations?—2. How did Christianity tend to the amelioration of the condition of slaves in the latter part of the Roman republic?—3. What effect had the subversion of the Roman empire, by the northern nations, upon slavery?—4. Who again introduced the Roman custom of condemning to slavery their prisoners of war?—5. And who adopted the very practice by way of retaliating upon the Turks?

ORIGIN OF AFRICAN SLAVERY.

1. THE very worst of all the consequences of the discovery of the new continent (was the introduction of negro slavery.) The first Spanish adventurers treated the unfortunate inhabitants of the newly discovered countries like beasts of burden. They divided among themselves the lands of the new world, and with the lands the ill-fated inhabitants also, whom they reduced to a state of the most abject slavery, and imposed upon them labours which their delicate constitutions were not able to bear. The natives of all those parts of America conquered by the Spaniards, inhabited countries where the fertility of the soil spontaneously produced what was necessary to their support, and the uniform warmth of the climate precluded the necessity of clothing.

2. In such a state, the natives of America, strangers to the wants and conveniences of civilized life, were unaccustomed to any active or laborious exertions, either of body or mind. (This habitual indolence, with the relaxing heat of the climate, enervated their bodily frame, and rendered them totally unfit for labour. The difference of bodily strength and constitution between the American natives within the torrid zone, and the Europeans, was so remarkably conspicuous, that one Spaniard was found able to perform as much laborious work, and also required as great a quantity of victuals, as five or six Indians; and the natives of America were astonished at the quantity of provisions which the Spaniards, who are the most abstemious people of Europe, devoured, as well as at the quantity of work they were able to perform.

3. Men, accustomed to so indolent a mode of life, and so scanty a diet, were totally incapable of supporting the labours of cultivating the ground, and working in the mines, which the colonists imposed upon them. Unable to sustain the grievous burdens with which their oppressors afflicted them, multitudes of those unhappy mortals were by death released from all their

earthly sufferings. Hispaniola, Cuba, and other islands, were almost depopulated, before the court of Spain was sufficiently apprised of the matter to interest itself in the sufferings of the Americans. The tyranny of the unprincipled and avaricious colonists excited the abhorrence, and the miseries of the natives stimulated the compassion, of several humane and benevolent Spaniards, both laymen and ecclesiastics, who had been witnesses of those scenes of horror.

4. Among those friends of mankind, the name of Father Bartholomew de las Casas will never be forgotten. This humane ecclesiastic, whose courage no danger could appal, and whose steady and resolute perseverance no difficulties could overcome, had been an indignant spectator of the tyranny exercised by the colonists on the unfortunate natives. He had loudly declaimed against their inhumanity and oppression. Passing from America to Spain, he endeavoured, by every possible means, to excite the public voice, as well as the humanity and compassion of the court, in favour of his oppressed fellow creatures. This benevolent man left no stone unturned to excite the compassion of both Spain and Rome in behalf of those unfortunate sufferers, and to rouse the thunders of the church, as well as the indignation of the Spanish court, against those Christian tyrants and butchers of the human species.

5. The colonists, on their part, were not inactive. They represented the Americans as an inferior race of beings, born for slavery, incapable of comprehending the doctrines of Christianity. This degradation of the Americans from the rank of rational beings, was, however, universally exploded and condemned by the decision of Rome and Spain, where the public indignation was roused against the inhumanity of the colonial tyrants; Father de las Casas, and other friends of humanity, were indefatigable in their efforts; and it is a pleasing object of contemplation, to see Spanish ecclesiastics of the fifteenth century stand forth the avowed advocates and assertors of the rational and unalienable rights of mankind. The court of Spain interested itself

warmly in the cause of the oppressed Americans, and resolved to take effective measures for putting an end to the disorders which prevailed in the colonies.

6. The colonists, on their part, finding their cause daily losing ground, and seeing reason to apprehend the anathemas of the church, as well as the effective resentment of the mother country, took a new ground, and discovered a post which they supposed, and which actually proved, in some degree, impregnable. They represented the necessity of having hands to cultivate the new settlements, and to work the mines, without which they must be abandoned, and all hopes of drawing any advantage from the discovery and conquest of those rich countries be for ever extinguished; and they represented the natives as an indolent race, whom no wages, no rewards, could induce to work, and whom nothing but absolute compulsion could oblige to apply to any kind of useful labour.

7. This representation, indeed, was not untrue. Their indolent and inactive life had rendered them equally unable and unwilling to apply to any kind of labour. Unaccustomed, as they had ever been, to the elegancies and luxuries of civilized life, and ignorant of their use, they could not suppose them worth the trouble of acquisition, and were astonished that the Europeans should either work themselves, or desire others to labour, for the possession of things not immediately necessary for the support of life; gold and silver were things of no value among them. They had never made use of those metals, except such pieces as they had accidentally found, and used merely as ornaments; and they could not conceive by what insatiation the Spaniards could be induced to ransack the bowels of the earth, and to establish a system of laborious employment for the acquisition of those metals, which appeared to them of so little use, and which they could do so well without.

8. It is very evident, that men of such ideas, and accustomed to so simple a state of life, could not be induced to labour for the sake of gain; for it is an invariable principle of human nature not to labour for

the acquisition of any thing the possession of which is esteemed of no value. This plea, therefore, of the colonists, was unanswerable. The prospect of drawing immense wealth from the new world could not be abandoned. Hands were necessary to cultivate the soil and work the mines. The natives would not work for wages; nothing but compulsory means could induce them to employ themselves in labour. These circumstances precluded the possibility of emancipating the Americans. The exertions of the friends of humanity were rendered abortive, in regard to the accomplishment of their grand object; but they were not, however, without a beneficial effect.

9. The court of Spain seriously studied to ameliorate the condition of the Americans; and different plans were formed, and different measures adopted, for that purpose. Every new regulation, relative to colonial affairs, was favourable to the cause of those oppressed people. As it was not possible to draw any advantage from the mines, unless they were wrought, and the Americans would not work for hire, a circumstance which imposed the necessity of using coercive measures, it was at length determined, that they should be freed from the tyrannical oppression of their imperious taskmasters, and only obliged to work by corvees in rotation, and to receive fixed wages for the days they were obliged to work. This was, indeed, the most rational method of gradually overcoming their habitual indolence and rooted aversion to labour, and of making them industrious and useful members of society.

10. Notwithstanding the rational and humane measures adopted by the court of Spain, the advocates of American liberty were not fully satisfied; and Father de las Casas, whose character is strongly marked by that determined resolution which no opposition can disconcert, and that ardent zeal which can never abandon a favourite project, was firmly bent on trying every expedient in order to accomplish the complete emancipation of the natives of the new world; and in his zeal for so good a cause, unfortunately hit upon the despe-

come on business to Altorf, passed through the public square, and beholding the pole with the hat upon it, hesitated a moment between wonder and laughter; but not knowing its object, and but little curious to inquire, he negligently passed this emblem of power. The irreverence paid to the pole, and the infraction of the severe edict, were speedily reported to the governor, who, being filled with rage, ordered the criminal to be instantly arrested, and brought before him. He received the offender with the savage look of cruelty peculiar to a base mind, jealous of its authority, and ferocious when it is made the subject of derision.

3. Villain, said he, is this your respect for my power and decrees? But you shall feel their full weight, and afford a wretched proof that my dignity is not to be affronted with impunity. Astonished, but not intimidated, at this invective, Tell freely inquired of what he was accused, as he was unconscious of any crime. Contempt and derision of my power, said the tyrant. I had no notice, replied Tell, of your edict; and without being instructed, I should never have dreamt of saluting a pole, or that irreverence to a hat was high treason against the state. Enraged at the tone and air of derision with which this was pronounced, and the reasonableness of the still more humiliating reply, he commanded the unfortunate man to be dragged away to the lowest dungeon of the castle, and there, loaded with chains, await his execution.

4. While the tyrant was revolving the subject in his own mind, and endeavouring to invent some unheard-of punishment, which should strike terror into the Swiss, the only and beloved son of Tell was brought into his presence by the soldiers. His ingenious cruelty immediately conceived the barbarous design of compelling the virtuous Tell to become the murderer of his son. For this purpose, he ordered the child to be placed at a considerable distance, and then placing an apple upon his head, he offered a full pardon to the wretched parent, if he should strike it off with an arrow.

5. Horror-struck at the proposal, he fell at the feet of the tyrant, and besought him to take his life, and

not insist upon the fatal experiment. But the anguish of the parent only strengthened the determination of Geisler; and the bow and a quiver of arrows were brought forth. The governor, attended by his satellites, now proceeded to the square, to witness the scene. The unhappy boy was conducted into the centre, bound to the pole, and the fatal apple was placed upon his head. Geisler thrilled with joy at the preparations; but a groan of horror arose on all sides from the populace who had assembled.

6. Although Tell was accounted the most skilful archer in the canton, it was some time before he could obtain his usual self possession. At last, with a firm hand, he placed the arrow; and when he drew the fatal string, the spectators, who had for some time remained in breathless silence, burst forth into a convulsive groan. At that instant the arrow sped with the velocity of lightning, and piercing the apple, bore it to some distance without injuring the child. A shout of applause testified the joy of the spectators. The governor alone appeared dissatisfied with the result, and turned his eye upon the successful archer with the aspect of disappointed revenge.

7. At that instant, another arrow, which Tell had concealed under his cloak, fell upon the ground. Unequalled archer! said the tyrant, since you were only to shoot once, for what purpose was this second arrow concealed? *To have pierced you to the heart,* replied the magnanimous Tell, *if I had been so unfortunate as to kill my son.* For this heroic answer he was condemned to perpetual imprisonment in a dungeon at Kuffnacht, the residence of Geisler. Tell was accordingly bound, and placed in a boat, that Geisler himself might convey him across the lake of Altorf to his castle.

8. Scarcely, however, had the boat performed half the passage, when a furious squall covered the surface of the lake with threatening waves. Geisler, as humble in the hour of danger as he had been arrogant when fear was at a distance, entreated Tell, who was accounted the most skilful boatman in the canton, to save him; and unbound his prisoner with his own hands.

Tell seated himself at the helm, steered the boat towards a rock, leaped upon it, and then, in an instant, with the same manly strength, pushed back the boat into the lake, escaped, and concealed himself. At length the storm abated, and Geisler gained the shore. As he was about to enter his fortress, Tell, who had by a circuitous route reached the spot before him, discharged an arrow at the tyrant, which pierced his heart; and thus paved the way for that conspiracy which laid the foundation of his country's liberty.)

QUESTIONS.

1. For what offence was William Tell condemned to death?
- 2. On what condition was he pardoned?—3. For what was he then sentenced to perpetual imprisonment?—4. How did he escape from this punishment?

BATTLE OF ERIE.

1. At 10 A. M. the wind hauled to the southeast, and brought the American squadron to windward. Commodore Perry then hoisted his Union Jack, having for a motto the dying words of the valiant Lawrence, "Don't give up the ship!" It was received with repeated cheerings by the officers and crews. And now having formed his line, he bore for the enemy, who likewise cleared for action, and hauled up his courses. It is deeply interesting to picture to ourselves the advances of these gallant and well-matched squadrons to a contest, where the strife must be obstinate and sanguinary, and the event decisive of the fate of almost an empire.

2. The lightness of the wind occasioned them to approach each other but slowly, and prolonged the awful interval of suspense and anxiety that precedes a battle. This is the time, when the stoutest hearts beat quick, "and the boldest holds his breath;" it is the still moment of direful expectation; of fearful looking out for slaughter and destruction; when even the glow of pride and ambition is chilled for a while, and nature shudders at

the awful jeopardy of existence. The very order and regularity of naval discipline, heighten the dreadful quiet of the moment. No bustle, no noise prevails to distract the mind, except at intervals the shrill piping of the boatswain's whistle, or a murmuring whisper among the men, who, grouped around their guns, earnestly regard the movements of the foe, now and then stealing a wistful glance at the countenance of their commanders. In this manner did the hostile squadrons approach each other, in mute watchfulness and terrible tranquillity; when suddenly a bugle was sounded from on board the enemy's ship *Detroit*, and loud huzzas immediately burst from all their crews.

3. No sooner did the *Lawrence* come within the reach of the enemies' long guns, than they opened a heavy fire upon her, which, from the shortness of her guns, she was unable to return. Commodore Perry, without waiting for his schooners, kept on his course in such gallant and determined style, that the enemy supposed it was his intention to board. In a few minutes, having a nearer position, he opened his fire. The length of the enemies' guns, however, gave them vastly the advantage, and the *Lawrence* was excessively cut up, without being able to do any great damage in return. Their shot pierced her sides in all directions, killing our men on the birth-deck and in the steerage, where they had been taken down to be dressed. One shot had nearly produced a fatal explosion; passing through the light room, it knocked the snuff of the candle into the magazine; fortunately, the gunner happened to see it, and had the presence of mind to extinguish it immediately with his hand.

4. Indeed, it seemed to be the enemy's plan to destroy the commodore's ship, and thus throw the squadron into confusion. For this purpose, their heaviest fire was directed at the *Lawrence*, and blazed incessantly upon it from their largest vessels. Finding the hazard of his situation, Perry made sail, and directed the other vessels to follow, for the purpose of closing with the foe. The tremendous fire, however, to which

he was exposed, soon cut away every brace and bow-line, and the *Lawrence* became unmanageable. Even in this disastrous plight, she sustained the action for upwards of two hours, within canister distance, though for a great part of the time he could not get more than three guns to bear upon her antagonists. It was admirable to behold the perfect order and regularity that prevailed among her valiant and devoted crew, throughout this scene of horror. No trepidation, no confusion occurred, even for an instant; as fast as the men were wounded, they were carried below, and others stepped into their places; the dead remained where they fell, till after the action.

5. At this juncture, the fortune of the battle trembled on a point, and the enemy believed the day their own. The *Lawrence* was reduced to a mere wreck; her decks were streaming with blood, and covered with mangled limbs, and the bodies of the slain; nearly the whole of her crew was either killed or wounded; her guns were dismounted; and the commodore and his officers helped to work the last that was capable of service. But amidst all this peril and disaster, the youthful commander is said to have remained perfectly composed, maintaining a serene and cheerful countenance, uttering no passionate or agitated expression, giving out his orders with calmness and deliberation, and inspiring every one around him by his magnanimous demeanor.

6. (At this crisis, finding the *Lawrence* was incapable of further service, and seeing the hazardous situation of the conflict, he formed the bold resolution of shifting his flag.) Giving the ship, therefore, in charge to Lieutenant Yarnall, who had already distinguished himself by his bravery, he hauled down his union, bearing the motto of *Lawrence*, and taking it under his arm, ordered to be put on board the *Niagara*, which was then in close engagement. In leaving the *Lawrence*, he gave his pilot choice either to remain on board, or accompany him; the faithful fellow told him, "he would stick by him to the last," and jumped into the boat.

He then went off from the ship in his usual gallant manner, standing up in the stern of the boat, until the crew absolutely pulled him down among them.

7. Broad sides were now levelled at him, and small arms were discharged by the enemy, two of whose vessels were within musket shot, and a third one nearer. His brave shipmates who remained behind, stood watching him in breathless anxiety; the balls struck around him, and flew over his head, in every direction; but the same special providence that seems to have watched over the youthful hero throughout this desperate battle, conducted him safely through a shower of shot, and they beheld with transport his inspiring flag hoisted at the mast-head of the Niagara. No sooner was he on board, than captain Elliot volunteered to put off in a boat, and bring into action the schooners, which had been kept astern by the lightness of the wind; the gallant offer was accepted, and Elliot left the Niagara to put it in execution.

8. About this time, the commodore saw, with infinite regret, the flag of the Lawrence come down. The event was unavoidable; she had sustained the whole fury of the enemy, and was rendered incapable of defence; any further show of resistance, would have been most uselessly and cruelly to have provoked carnage among the relics of her brave and mangled crew. The enemy, however were not able to take possession of her, and subsequent circumstances enabled her again to hoist her flag.

9. Commodore Perry now made signal for close action, and the small vessels got out their sweeps, and made all sail. Finding that the Niagara was but little injured, he determined, if possible, to break the enemy's line. He accordingly bore up, and passed ahead of the two ships and brig, giving them a raking fire from his starboard guns, and also to a large schooner and sloop from his larboard side at half pistol shot. Having passed the whole squadron, he luffed up, and laid his ship alongside the British commodore. The smaller vessels, under the direction of captain Elliot, having, in the mean time, got within grape and canister

distance, and keeping up a well directed fire, the whole of the enemy struck, excepting two small vessels, which attempted to escape, but were taken.

10. The engagement lasted about three hours, and never was victory more decisive and complete. The captured squadron exceeded ours in weight of metal and number of guns. Their crews were also more numerous; ours were a motley collection, where there were some good seamen, but eked out with soldiers, volunteers, and boys, and many were on the sick list. More prisoners were taken than we had men to guard. The loss on both sides was severe. Scarcely any of the Lawrence's crew escaped unhurt. Among those slain, was lieutenant Brooks, of the marines, a gay and elegant young officer, full of spirit, of amiable manners, and remarkable for his personal beauty. Lieutenant Yarnall, though repeatedly wounded, refused to quit the deck during the whole of the action.

11. Commodore Perry, notwithstanding that he was continually in the most exposed situations of the battle, escaped uninjured; he wore an ordinary seaman's dress, which, perhaps, prevented him from being picked off by the enemy's sharp shooters. He had a younger brother with him, on board the Lawrence, as midshipman, who was equally fortunate in receiving no injury, though his shipmates fell all around him. Two Indian chiefs had been stationed in the tops of the Detroit, to shoot down our officers; but when the action became warm, so panic struck were they with the terrors of the scene, and the strange perils that surrounded them, that they fled precipitately to the hold of the ship, where they were found after the battle, in a state of utter consternation. The bodies of several other Indians are said to have been found the next day on the shores of the lake, supposed to have been killed during the engagement, and thrown overboard.

12. It is impossible to state the number of killed on board the enemy. It must, however, have been very great, as their vessels were literally cut to pieces; and the masts of their two principal ships so shattered that the first gale blew them overboard. Commodore B

clay, the British commander, certainly did himself honour by a brave and obstinate resistance. He had seen much service, having been desperately wounded in the battle of Trafalgar, and afterwards losing an arm in another engagement with the French. In the present battle, he was twice carried below, on account of his wounds, and (had the misfortune to have his remaining hand shot away.) While below the second time, his officer came down and told him that they must strike, as the ships were cut to pieces, and the men could not be kept to their guns. Commodore Barclay was then carried on deck, and after taking a view of their situation, and finding all chance of success was over, reluctantly gave orders to strike.

QUESTIONS.

1. When was the battle of Erie? (10th of September, 1813.)
- 2. Who commanded the American squadron?—3. Who the British squadron?—4. What was the name of the vessel in which commodore Perry commenced the engagement?—5. Did he continue on board of it through the whole engagement?—6. Why did he leave it, and under what circumstances?—7. What was the motto on his union jack?—8. What injury did commodore Barclay receive in the engagement?

SURRENDER OF QUEBEC.

1. QUEBEC stands on the north side of the St. Lawrence, and on the west of the St. Charles, which latter river empties into the former immediately below the town. Its fortifications are strong, and the city elegant and extensive. It consists of an upper and lower town; the lower town is built upon the strand, which stretches along the base of the lofty rock on which the upper is situated. This rock continues with a bold and steep front, far to the westward, parallel to and near the river St. Lawrence. On this side, therefore, the city might well be deemed inaccessible. On the other, it was protected by the river St. Charles, in which were several armed vessels and floating batteries, deriving additional security from a strong boom drawn across its

mouth. The channel of this river is rough and broken, and its borders intersected with ravines. On its left or eastern bank, was encamped a French army strongly intrenched, and amounting, according to all the English accounts, to ten thousand men. The encampment extended from the St. Charles eastward to the river Montmorency, and its rear was covered by an almost impenetrable wood.

2. To render this army still more formidable, it was commanded by a general, who, in the course of the present war, had given signal proofs of active courage, and consummate prudence. The same *marquis de Montcalm* who, when strong enough to act offensively, had so rapidly carried Oswego and fort William Henry, and who, when reduced to the defensive, had driven Abercrombie with so much slaughter from the walls of Ticonderoga, was now at the head of the army which covered Quebec, and was an antagonist in all respects worthy of Wolfe.—Although perceiving, in their full extent, the difficulties with which he was environed, the British general possessed a mind too ardent, and too replete with military enthusiasm, to yield to them. Unpromising as were his prospects, he did not hesitate respecting the part it became him to take. He could not submit to the disgrace of relinquishing an enterprise entrusted to him, while any human means for accomplishing his object remained unessayed.

3. A bold plan was formed, well adapted to the adventurous spirit of the English general, and the desperate situation of his affairs. This was to land the troops in the night a small distance above the city, on the northern bank of the river, and (by scaling a precipice accessible only by a narrow path,) and therefore but weakly guarded, to gain by the morning the heights back of the town, where it has been stated to have been but slightly fortified. The difficulties attending the execution of this scheme are represented to have been numerous. The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the intended and only practicable landing place so narrow as to be easily missed in the dark, and

the steep above, such as not to be ascended without difficulty even when unopposed. Under these circumstances, it was apparent, that a discovery and a vigorous opposition would not only defeat the enterprise, but probably occasion the destruction of a great part of the troops engaged in it.

4. This bold resolution being taken, the admiral moved up the river, several leagues above the place where it was designed to land, and made demonstrations of an intention to debark a body of troops at different places. During the night, a strong detachment was put on board the flat bottomed boats and fell silently down with the tide to the place fixed on for the descent, which was made with equal secrecy and vigour, about a mile above cape Diamond, an hour before day-break, Wolfe himself being the first man who leaped on shore. The highlanders and light infantry who composed the van, under the particular command of colonel Howe, were intended to secure a four-gun battery, which defended an intrenched path by which the heights were to be ascended; and, dislodging from thence a captain's guard, to cover the landing of the remaining troops.

5. The violence of the current forced them rather below the point of debarkation, and this circumstance increased their difficulties. However, scrambling up the precipice, by the aid of the rugged projections of the rocks, and the branches of trees and plants growing on the cliffs, into which it was every where broken, they gained the heights, and very quickly dispersed the guard, which did not make the resistance to have been expected from the advantages of their situation. The whole army followed up this narrow pass, and having only encountered a scattering fire from some Canadians and Indians, from which very little loss was sustained, they gained the summit by the break of day, where the corps were formed under their respective leaders.

6. The intelligence that the English were in possession of the heights of Abraham was soon conveyed to Montcalm. Believing it to be impossible that an enter-

prise attended with so much difficulty could have been achieved, that officer supposed it to be only a feint, made with a small detachment, for the purpose of drawing him from his present strong and well chosen position. On being convinced of his error, he comprehended at once the full force of the advantage which had been gained, and the necessity it imposed on him of changing his plan of operations. Perceiving that a battle was no longer avoidable, and that the fate of Quebec depended on its issue, he prepared for it with promptness and with courage. Leaving his strong camp at Montmorency, he crossed the river St. Charles for the purpose of attacking the English army.

7. This movement was made in the view of Wolfe, who without loss of time formed his order of battle. His right wing was commanded by general Monckton, and his left by general Murray. The right flank was covered by the Louisberg grenadiers, and the rear and left by the light infantry of Howe, who had now returned from the four-gun battery. The reserve consisted of Webb's regiment, drawn up in eight sub-divisions with large intervals between them.—Montcalm had formed his right and left wing about equally of European and colonial troops. His centre consisted of a column of Europeans; and two small field pieces were brought up to play on the English line. In this order he marched to the attack, advancing in his front about one thousand five hundred militia and Indians, who were sheltered by bushes, from whence they kept up on the English an irregular and galling fire.

8. The movement of the French indicating an intention to flank his left, general Wolfe ordered the battalion of Amherst, with the two battalions of royal Americans, to that part of his line, where they were formed *en potence* under general Townshend, presenting to the enemy a double front. Disregarding the irregular fire of the Canadian militia and Indians, he ordered his troops to reserve themselves for the main body of the enemy, advancing in the rear of those irregulars; but in the mean-time, a field piece which had been brought up, played briskly and with effect on the French col-

umn. Montcalm had taken post on the left of the French army, and Wolfe on the right of the English, so that the two generals met each other, at the head of their respective troops, where the battle was most severe.

9. The French advanced briskly to the charge, and commenced the action with great animation. The English are stated to have reserved their fire until the enemy were within forty yards of them, when they gave it with immense effect. It was kept up for some time with great spirit, when Wolfe advancing at the head of Bragg's and the Louisburg grenadiers with charged bayonets, received a mortal wound, of which he soon afterwards expired. Undismayed by the loss of their general, the English continued their exertions under Monckton, on whom the command now devolved. He also received a ball through his body, which is stated to have passed through his lungs, and general Townshend took command of the British army. About the same time, Montcalm, fighting in the front of his battalions, received a mortal wound; and general Senzergus, the second in command, also fell. The left wing and centre of the French began to give way, and being pressed close with the English bayonet and the highland broadsword, were driven, notwithstanding one attempt to rally and renew the attack, partly into Quebec, and partly over the St. Charles river.

10 On the left and rear of the English, the action was less severe, and the attack much less animated. The light infantry had been placed in the houses, and colonel Howe, the better to support them, had taken post with two companies, still farther to the left, behind a copse. As the right of the French attacked the English left, he sallied out from this position against their flanks, and threw them into disorder. In this critical moment, Townshend advanced several platoons of Amherst's regiment against their front, and completely frustrated the intention Montcalm had formed of turning the left flank. Townshend maintained his position, for the purpose of keeping in check the right wing of the French and a body of savages stationed opposite the

light infantry, for the purpose of getting into and falling on their rear.

11. In this state of the action, Townshend was informed that the command had devolved on him. Proceeding instantly to the centre, he found that part of the army thrown into some disorder by the ardour of pursuit, and his immediate efforts were employed in restoring the line. Scarcely was this effected, when monsieur de Bougainville, who had been detached as high as Cape Rouge to prevent a landing above, and who on hearing that the English had gained the plains of Abraham, hastened to the assistance of Montcalm, appeared in the rear at the head of one thousand five hundred men. Fortunately, the right wing of the enemy, as well as their left and centre, was now entirely broken, and had been driven off the field. Two battalions and two pieces of artillery being advanced towards Bougainville, he retired, and Townshend did not think it advisable to risk the important advantages already gained, by a pursuit of this fresh body of troops through a difficult country.

12. In this decisive battle, nearly equal numbers appear to have been engaged. The English, however, possessed this immense advantage—they were all veterans—while not more than half the French army were of the same description. This circumstance would lead to an opinion that some motive, not well explained, must have existed to induce Montcalm to hazard a general action before he was joined by Bougainville. The French regulars, who do not appear to have been well supported by the militia or Indians, were almost entirely cut to pieces. On the part of the English, the loss was by no means so considerable, as the fierceness of the action would indicate. The killed and wounded were less than six hundred men; but among the former, was the commander in chief. This gallant officer, of whom the most exalted expectations had very justly been formed; whose uncommon merit and singular fate have presented a rich theme for panegyric to both the poet and historian, received, in the commencement of the action, a ball in his wrist; but without discovering the

least discomposure, wrapping a handkerchief around his arm, he continued to encourage his troops.

13. Soon afterwards, he received a shot in the groin. This painful wound he also concealed, and was advancing at the head of the grenadiers, when a third bullet pierced his breast. Though expiring, it was with reluctance he permitted himself to be conveyed into the rear, where, careless about himself, he discovered, in the agonies of death, the most anxious solicitude concerning the fate of the day. Being told that the enemy was visibly broken, he reclined his head from extreme faintness, on the arm of an officer standing near him; but was soon aroused with the distant sound of "they fly! they fly!" "Who fly?" exclaimed the dying hero. On being answered "the French," "Then," said he, "I depart content;" and almost immediately expired in the arms of victory. "A death more glorious," adds Mr. Belsham, "and attended with circumstances more picturesque and interesting, is no where to be found in the annals of history."

14. With less of good fortune, but not less of heroism, expired the equally gallant Montcalm. The same love of glory, and the same fearlessness of death, which in so remarkable a manner distinguished the British hero, were not less conspicuous in the conduct of his competitor for victory and for fame. He expressed the highest satisfaction on hearing that his wound was mortal; and when told he could survive only a few hours, quickly replied, "So much the better; I shall not then live to see the surrender of Quebec." The first days after the action were employed by general Townshend in fortifying his camp, cutting a road up the precipice, for the conveyance of his heavy artillery to the batteries on the heights, and making the necessary preparations for the siege of Quebec. But before his batteries were opened, the town capitulated, on condition that the inhabitants should, during the war, be protected in the free exercise of their religion, and the full enjoyment of their civil rights, leaving their future destinies to be decided by the general peace.

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the situation of Quebec?—2. Who commanded the English army?—3. Who commanded the French?—4. How did general Wolfe effect a landing?—5. What were the words of Wolf when told the French were fled?—6. What were the words of Montcalm on being told his wound was mortal?

ALEXANDER SELKIRK.

Lines supposed to have been written by Alexander Selkirk, during his solitary abode in the island of Juan Fernandez.

1. I AM monarch of all I survey,
 My right there is none to dispute ;
 From the centre all round to the sea,
 I am lord of the fowl and the brute.
 O solitude ! where are the charms,
 That sages have seen in thy face ?
 Better dwell in the midst of alarms,
 Than reign in this horrible place.
2. I am out of humanity's reach,
 I must finish my journey alone ;
 Never hear the sweet music of speech ;
 I start at the sound of my own.
 The beasts that roam over the plain,
 My form with indifference see ;
 They are so unacquainted with man,
 Their tameness is shocking to me.
3. Society, friendship, and love,
 Divinely bestow'd upon man,
 O, had I the wings of a dove,
 How soon would I taste you again !
 My sorrows I then might assuage
 In the ways of religion and truth ;
 Might learn from the wisdom of age,
 And be cheer'd by the sallies of youth.
4. Religion ! what treasure untold
 Resides in that heavenly word !

More precious than silver and gold,
 Or all that this earth can afford.
 But the sound of the church-going bell
 These vallies and rocks never heard;
 Never sigh'd at the sound of the knell,
 Or smil'd when a sabbath appear'd.

5. Ye winds, that have made me your sport,
 Convey to this desolate shore,
 Some cordial endearing report
 Of a land I shall visit no more.
 My friends, do they now and then send
 A wish or a thought after me?
 O tell me I yet have a friend,
 Though a friend I am never to see.

6. How fleet is a glance of the mind?
 Compar'd with the speed of its flight,
 The tempest itself lags behind,
 And the swift winged arrows of light.
 When I think of my own native land,
 In a moment I seem to be there;
 But, alas! recollection at hand
 Soon hurries me back to despair.

7. But the sea fowl is gone to her nest,
 The beast is laid down in his lair;
 Even here is a season of rest,
 And I to my cabin repair.
 There's mercy in every place,
 And mercy, encouraging thought,
 Gives even affliction a grace,
 And reconciles man to his lot.

BONAPARTE'S CAMPAIGN IN RUSSIA.

1. The year 1812 will stand as an epoch in history, distinguished by the commencement of a war, which was ultimately productive of events, such as Europe had never witnessed since the descendants of Japhet first spread themselves over her ample domain. When

we consider the elevated rank of some of the persons concerned in the tremendous military drama, the extraordinary talents of others, the magnitude of the events, and the importance of the final catastrophe—this clash of contending nations may be denominated the war of giants.

2. The Russian emperor, disdaining any longer to submit to the restrictions of the continental system established by the ruler of France, resolved to assert the independence, and extend the commerce of his empire, by opening his ports to the ships of all nations. This magnanimous resolution gave rise to a war between France and Russia, of which the first campaign was attended with a destruction of the human species unexampled in modern history. Towards the end of June, the emperor of the French entered the Russian dominions with an army of nearly three hundred thousand men, in the highest state of equipment and discipline. With this tremendous force he compelled the Russians to abandon their fortified camp at Drissa, and after being victorious in the battles of Mohilow and Poltosk, as well as in several other actions, he burned the large city of Smolenskow. Still proceeding into the interior of Russia, he remained master of the field at the sanguinary battle of Borodino; but the carnage was almost incredible, and the loss on both sides nearly equal. A view of the ensanguined scene is said to have drawn from the French emperor this exclamation, "Never has there been seen such a field of battle."

3. After this bloody victory, the emperor of the French advanced to Moscow. On the 15th of September he entered that capital, and fixed his head quarters in the Kremlin, the ancient and magnificent palace of the czars. But the city having been set on fire by the Russians, the invader found himself in the midst of smoking ruins. Until this critical moment, the military career of the French emperor had displayed an unvaried scene of splendid success. The crimson wing of victory had fanned his banners; and most of the nations of Europe regarded his arms as invincible. Accustom-

ed so long to the smiles of fortune, he scarcely supposed that she would ever frown; and when he sat down on the throne of the czars, he never thought of the abyss that was opening under his feet.

4. Napoleon was no sooner master of Moscow, than he offered peace to the emperor Alexander, who magnanimously rejected his proposals. (The invader now saw the impossibility of procuring supplies for his troops during the severe season which was approaching.) The Russian forces in the mean while daily increased in number, fresh troops arriving from different quarters; and the winter set in both somewhat sooner and with greater severity than usual. In these circumstances, Napoleon began his retreat (on the 18th of October) exposed to the incessant attacks of the Russians. In these bloody encounters, the French were generally defeated; the severity of the season in that rigorous climate, in conjunction with hunger and fatigue, being more destructive than the sword, their once formidable army was nearly annihilated; and their retreat exhibited a scene of slaughter and loss, to which history scarcely affords any parallel.

5. From comparing a variety of documents, it appears that there perished of the French between eighty and ninety thousand, besides above a hundred and sixty thousand that were made prisoners; so that this disastrous retreat cost Napoleon nearly two hundred and fifty thousand men, forty thousand horses, and above eleven hundred pieces of artillery, which he had carried from France or taken from the Russians. The French emperor, who with his principal generals escaped with great difficulty, reached Paris about the end of December.

6. The victorious Russians, who now had the emperor Alexander at their head, having driven the French beyond the frontier, still continued the pursuit, and advanced without opposition into Germany. On the 4th of March, 1813, they entered Berlin, where they were received not as invaders, but as deliverers from the tyrannical yoke of France. The nations who had for a time been obliged to submit to the overwhelming

power of Napoleon, began to resolve on effecting their emancipation. Prussia set the example, which was followed by several German states; and the crown prince of Sweden, Bernadotte, formerly one of Napoleon's generals, joined in the confederacy against France.

7. In the mean while the shattered remnants of the French army having reached the Elbe, and received some reinforcements, concentrated themselves on the line of that river. And the emperor having ordered fresh levies of conscripts, made formidable preparations for the ensuing campaign. Large bodies of troops marched from all parts of France to the banks of the Elbe; hostilities commenced with great vigour; in several severe actions the French had the advantage; and Europe was astonished at the numerous and formidable forces that Napoleon brought into the field, and the gigantic efforts which he made, notwithstanding his losses in the Russian campaign. An armistice, however, was concluded, and the contending powers entered into negotiations for a peace.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did the war between Russia and France commence?
- 2. What was the number of the French army that entered Russia?
- 3. What important battles were fought on their way to Moscow?
- 4. When did Bonaparte enter Moscow?
- 5. How was his offer of peace treated by Alexander?
- 6. What induced Bonaparte to leave Moscow?
- 7. When did he leave it?
- 8. How many men did he lose in his retreat from Moscow?
- 9. How many horses?
- 10. How many pieces of artillery?

BURNING OF MOSCOW.

1. **WHETHER** the destruction of Moscow was the effect of unbounded patriotism, or matter of policy, is a speculation that will long interest the politician. It certainly filled the minds of every individual with horror and revenge; but from the previous unshaken loyalty, and unabated courage of the Russians, it was scarcely a necessary act to stimulate them to further feelings of revenge against a foe, who had already given too many

insults. The city might have been saved, and the same fate would have pursued the followers of Napoleon. If the provisions and store-houses had been destroyed, the French could not have remained longer than they did. It was entirely from the want of provisions that the retreat of the French army became necessary. Very few of the churches were destroyed; from the nature of their structure they could not be burnt, though considerably injured—these alone were sufficient to have contained one hundred thousand men.)

2. Besides, many of the public buildings and palaces were entirely built of brick, and many of the rooms arched with the same. Of these, only the roofs and windows were destroyed—and which could have been easily renewed from the neighbouring forests. It was the original intention of the Russians, only to destroy the magazines of provision, in the event of the enemy gaining possession of the city.—The stores were in consequence kept unremoved, until too late; and when the order was given to set them on fire, the frenzy of the moment carried the flaming torch to every house; and which, cool judgment now condemns. The Exchange and store-houses were set on fire the morning of the day on which the French army entered. It partly communicated with the contiguous buildings, and all those houses and hovels constructed of wood, soon fell a sacrifice to the flames.

3. During the evening, a violent storm arose, which continued during three days, and occasioned a rapid expansion of the fire—still these wooden houses were the only part of the city that suffered, with some occasional streets, where the houses were closely built together—but all those palaces and magnificent buildings, which stood in isolated situations, surrounded by gardens, so characteristic of Moscow, were all *individually* set on fire. It is reported by the present inhabitants who remained in the city during its occupation by the French, that every afternoon, at a certain hour, the flames burst out with increased vigour; and at those time, numerous reports of pistols were heard, which is asserted to have been used in firing phosphorous

balls into the houses, and thus setting them on fire. All the walls remained; and many of them without much injury—but every house was roofless, and without either windows or doors. Many superb houses were completely demolished, particularly the theatres.

4. (It is improbable that Moscow will ever be rebuilt on a scale equal to its former magnificence.) The sister capital is too favourite a rival, and it is a matter of policy in the government, not to increase Moscow, in order to draw its wealthy inhabitants to St. Petersburg. Another obstacle against the immediate restoration of Moscow, is the increased extravagance of the nobles, and the immense expenses and sacrifices they have lately undergone in expelling the French from their territory, and assisting in the security of a general peace; this has greatly limited their incomes, which, depending on the productions of the soil, varies, according to the necessities of the times—added to this, a strange antipathy to repair a house once destroyed, or even to live in a palace where a relation has died. This is one of the causes, that many superb palaces are seen deserted by their noble owners, and filled with tradesmen. (It is now impossible for many of the nobility to raise such superb palaces as what their forefathers have done.)

5. In those feudal times, the nobles scarcely ever quitted their own country; and the means of adding to the public and private debts of the nation were less; and the rage of building palaces and churches were more in fashion then, than at present.—The inhabitants were certainly lulled into a belief, before the battle of Borodino, that the French could not enter the city; and it was not until after that eventful day, that the destruction of Moscow was decided upon. Dismay and confusion became general; the aged and the weak immediately sought their safety in flight, leaving behind them the greater part of their wealth; had not this false security been allowed to prevail, the properties of individuals might have been removed, and the store-houses alone destroyed. If this had been the case, the

French army could not have remained longer than they did, and the city might have been saved; except that Napoleon, in a fit of disappointed ambition at the failure and disgrace of his plans, might have ordered the city to be blown up, as he did the Kremlin.

6. However, if we put aside our feelings of terror, we must say, that the deed itself boasts of such bold and frightful heroism, and furnishes such a noble instance of the pure and wild passion of patriotism, that future ages will mark it as one of those acts, "which can never be wearied out by time." Unhappy and ill-fated city! may thy sufferings and thy sorrows plead not in vain, at the altar of Him, who looks down from on high;—may thy vices and thy crimes be no more remembered—may they perish in thy ruins, and mingle with thy dust—may thy flames ne'er cease to throw their lights around, till distant nations catch the spark, break their bonds, and be free—and, as the winds, the hollow winds of night, sigh along the grass that shadows thy tombs, may they wander up to heaven, and breathe thine orisons!

QUESTIONS.

1. From what cause did the retreat of the French army become necessary?—2. How many persons might have been accommodated in the churches not burnt?—3. Was it the original intention of the Russians to burn Moscow?—4. Is it probable that Moscow will ever be rebuilt as it was before?—5. Why not?—6. When was the destruction determined on?

THE KREMLIN OF MOSCOW.

1. Moscow is regularly divided by walls and ditches, into five divisions; the centre of which, the Kremlin, stands on an elevated ridge of ground, on the west side of the Moskwa. It is the citadel or fortress of the town, and easily commands all parts of it. This was the first part of Moscow that was built in the twelfth century, more from accident, than any design in its noble founder, to lay it as the foundation of a future capital. The beauty of its situation and the surround-

ing country, induced the future sovereigns of the country to strengthen its situation, and fix in it the royal residence. From that time, the infant city gradually increased in size, and swelled around, until Peter the Great removed the seat of government to St. Petersburg; and after that period, it became more the residence of discontented nobles, and those who did not choose to be eclipsed by the superior splendor of the court.

2. From the singularity of so many parts of the town being walled in, one within another, it bears marks of those ages of feudal despotism, when every chief lived within his fortified castle, while his numerous dependants sheltered themselves under its bulwarks. As the retinue and followers augmented, the buildings increased, to such extent, as in time to require a similar bulwark, and thus became an enclosed city. Without these walls, new suburbs would be raised, which would increase in extent to the former, and ultimately require a similar fortification, and so on. This appears to have been the cause of the present outline of Moscow, (the Kremlin forming as it were the kernel of the nut;) and, probably, had not St. Petersburg been reared, what is now the exterior boundary of the suburbs, might have been raised to a wall, and new suburbs, and a larger circumference, taken in.

3. The extent of the wall which surrounds the Kremlin, is about (a mile and a half) — that which encompasses the third division is about five miles, while that of the fourth is nearly twenty-five miles. Only the Kremlin and second division are walled in — the third division appears to have been surrounded by an earthen rampart, but which has been partly levelled. The external boundary of the suburbs is a narrow dry ditch about three feet deep. Of these different fortified parts of the city, that of the Kremlin is the most conspicuous, and the most singular. Here the ingenuity of the artist has been displayed to its utmost extent, and the riches of the state deposited. Within the once sacred walls of this spot, the mighty monarchs of the empire held their court; and here the most dignified

ministers of the church shared the pomp and splendor of the imperial court.

4. The most prominent buildings in the Kremlin (are the churches, the imperial and patriarchal palaces, and the arsenal.) The great cathedral does not equal the expectation of the stranger; it exhibits an oblong square, lost in the disproportion of the height of the wall; the roof is surmounted by numerous large gilded cupolas, each of which supports a magnificent cross richly ornamented, with curious devices. The interior of the church is extremely rich in gildings and colours, but heavy and badly arranged. Opposite this cathedral, is seen the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary. It is larger than the other, but similar in design. In it are seen suspended from the roof, nine massive chandellers of silver, and some very beautiful paintings. Among the most valuable of these paintings is a head of the Virgin, richly studded over with jewels and precious stones, kept in a gold box, near the altar—this venerated picture is shewn to every stranger by one of the officiating priests, and who regularly demands a donation for the miracles which it wrought.

5. In this church, are seen the tombs or stone coffins of the patriarchs, covered with black velvet. In this cathedral the czars are generally crowned; and interred in the other. Between these churches, and nearly in the centre of the Kremlin, stands the spire of St. Ivan, the highest building in Moscow. The body of the church was completely destroyed by Napoleon's order, but is again rebuilt on its former plan. The spire is built of a circular form, and about 300 feet high. The top terminates by a large conical shaped cupola richly gilt, and surmounted by a huge plain cross. The present cross is a substitute for the former one, which being made of pure silver, was seized by Bonaparte. From the height of the building, and its ruinous state, it was thought a dangerous attempt to take it down. Napoleon offered a reward to any one who had sufficient courage to accomplish it. A native Russa, it is said, performed the sacrilegious deed, and

the silver cross became the property of the invader, but which was recovered before his flight from the city.

6. The spire is divided into three apartments, which contain the bells; in the lower division are eight large bells, nine in the second, and thirteen in the third. The largest of these bells fell to the ground at the destruction of the church, but fortunately without any injury. This is the largest bell in Moscow, except what is called the *Great Bell*, now buried under the ruins of the church. From the upper division of this spire, the most commanding view of the city is taken. The whole town, suburbs, and surrounding country, are distinctly seen spreading around in every direction, like a vast map, studded with the most grotesque buildings; while the Moskwa, in all its windings, appears as a flat, muddy stream, meandering and struggling through the endless avenues of the city. Perhaps no sight can equal the diversity and grandeur of this. No smoky atmosphere clouds the transparency of the azure canopy of heaven—all is bright and resplendent.

7. Near to the belfry of St. Ivans, is seen the top of the great bell, which was cast in the reign of the empress Anne. Many descriptions have been given of this extraordinary bell; only the top can now be seen, the pit in which it lay being completely filled up with the ruins of the church. This is the largest bell ever founded, and it remains in the place where it was originally cast. Its weight is computed to be (44,377 pounds) its circumference is sixty-seven feet and four inches, and its height is twenty-one feet and four inches. The Russians relate, that while this bell was in fusion, the nobles and the people cast in, as votive offerings, their plate and money; and consequently that it contains a large quantity of gold and silver.

8. Besides these churches, there are the convent of Ischudof, and the church of the Holy Trinity and some small chapels. The church of the Holy Trinity forms the principal gateway, or entry to the Kremlin from the fourth division of the city. In this church the body of a distinguished saint is placed; and in respect to his remains, every individual passing under the portal is

compelled to uncover his head. Besides the churches, convents and monasteries, the Kremlin contains the palaces of the czars and of the patriarchs, with the arsenal and some other modern buildings. None of them are particularly grand. Within the walls of the Kremlin there are not less than one hundred and eight spires and cupolas; of these, forty-five are richly gilded, the rest are painted either green, red, or white.

9. The house in which Napoleon lodged is the most modern and elegant building in the Kremlin. The view from it is most extensive. In front of the house are ranged the guns taken from the French army during their retreat from Moscow. They are placed on the ground parallel to each other, with tickets affixed to each division, marking the time and place where they were taken. The first line comprehends sixty beautiful pieces of light artillery, with Napoleon's initials on each; the other divisions contain the guns of all the kingdoms and states of Europe, of various dimensions. Altogether, there are eight hundred guns, the glorious trophy of the Russian conquest!

10. It is impossible to give any particular description of the palaces or riches of the Kremlin; it is only the bare walls, ruinous and deserted, that now invite the stranger's curiosity. When all hopes were banished from the ambitious and discontented mind of the French ruler, and when he found that he could no longer maintain his usurpation of the seat of the czars, he determined on destroying what he had not the courage nor strength to defend. The beautiful church of St. Ivan fell as the first sacrifice to his revenge. The walls of the Kremlin were next mined—the explosion took place; but from its immense thickness, only a part of it was destroyed. The north-west angle, with two fine spires, was completely destroyed, occupying nearly one hundred yards in extent. On the east side next to the river, are two considerable breaches. The rest of the wall is perfectly entire.

11. Many parts of the wall are nearly forty feet in thickness, and in general from twenty to thirty feet in height. The top of the wall is divided into a number

of gothic loop-holes, and at regular distances by gothic spires. There are six gates by which the Kremlin is entered, though only two of them are used. A new and elegant promenade was lately finished between the east wall and the river, which adds greatly to the beauty of the Kremlin, from what is represented in old drawings. The Kremlin has long been considered, by those who have not beheld it, as a spot of uncommon magnificence and extent. It certainly does not answer that high description which the traveller is led to expect. The buildings are numerous, but they are heavily constructed, and grouped together without order or design—every thing is sacrificed to mere shew of gildings and useless cupolas.

QUESTIONS.

1. Into how many parts is Moscow divided?—2. What is the central one called?—3. When was it built?—4. What is the extent of the wall that surrounds the Kremlin?—5. What are the most prominent buildings of the Kremlin?—6. What is the height of the spire of St. Ivan?—7. What is the weight of the *Great Bell* of Moscow?—8. How many spires and cupolas are there in the Kremlin?—9. How many pieces of artillery are there in the Kremlin captured by the Russians?—10. What is the thickness of the walls of the Kremlin?

BATTLE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

1. On the morning of the first of January, 1815, sir Edward Packenham was discovered to have constructed batteries near the American works, and at day-light commenced a heavy fire from them, which was well returned by Jackson. A bold attempt was, at the same time, made to turn the left of the Americans; but in this the enemy was completely repulsed. The British retired in the evening, from their batteries, having spiked their guns, and leaving behind a quantity of ammunition. The loss of the Americans on this occasion, was eleven killed and twenty-three wounded. On the fourth, general Jackson was joined by two thousand five hundred Kentuckians, under general Adair; and

on the sixth, the British were joined by general Lambert, at the head of four thousand men. The British force now amounted (to little short of fifteen thousand of the finest troops) that of the Americans (to about six thousand, chiefly raw militia, a considerable portion unarmed, and from the haste of their departure, badly supplied with clothing. All the private arms which the inhabitants possessed were collected, and the ladies of New-Orleans occupied themselves continually in making different articles of clothing. The mayor of the city, Mr. Girod, was particularly active at this trying moment.

2. The British general now prepared for a serious attempt on the American works. With great labour he had completed, by the seventh, a canal from the swamp to the Mississippi, by which he was enabled to transport a number of his boats to the river; it was his intention to make a simultaneous attack on the main force of general Jackson on the left bank, and, crossing the river, to attack the batteries on the right. The works of the American general were by this time completed; his front was a straight line of one thousand yards, defended by upwards of three thousand infantry and artillerists. The ditch contained five feet water; and his front, from having been flooded by opening the levees and frequent rains, was rendered slippery and muddy. Eight distinct batteries were judiciously disposed, mounting in all, twelve guns of different calibres. On the opposite side of the river, there was a strong battery of fifteen guns, and the entrenchments were occupied by general Morgan, with the Louisiana militia, and a strong detachment of the Kentucky troops.

3. On the memorable morning of the eighth of January, general Packenham, having detached colonel Thornton with a considerable force, to attack the works on the right bank of the river, moved with his whole force, exceeding twelve thousand men, in two divisions, under major-generals Gibbs and Kean; and a reserve under general Lambert. The first of these officers was to make the principal attack; the two

columns were supplied with scaling-ladders, and fascines. Thus prepared, the Americans patiently waited the attack, which would decide the fate of New-Orleans, and perhaps of Louisiana. The British deliberately advanced in solid columns, over an even plain, in front of the American intrenchments, the men carrying, besides their muskets, fascines, and some of them ladders. A dead silence prevailed, until they approached within reach of the batteries, which commenced an incessant and destructive cannonade; they, notwithstanding, continued to advance in tolerable order, closing up their ranks, as fast as they were opened by the fire of the Americans.

4. When they came within reach, however, of the musketry and rifles, these joined with the artillery, and produced such dreadful havoc, that they were instantly thrown into confusion. Never was there so tremendous a fire, as that kept up from the American lines; it was a continued stream; those behind loading for the men in front, enabled them to fire with scarcely an intermission. The British columns were literally swept away; hundreds fell at every discharge. The British officers were now making an effort to rally their men; and in this attempt, their commander, a gallant officer, general Packenham, was killed. The two generals, Gibbs and Kean, succeeded in pushing forward their columns a second time; but the second approach was more fatal than the first; the continued rolling fire of the Americans resembled peals of thunder; it was such as no troops could withstand; the advancing columns broke, and no effort to rally them could avail; a few platoons only, advanced to the edge of the ditch, to meet a more certain destruction.

5. An unavailing attempt was made to bring them up a third time by their officers, whose gallantry, on this occasion, deserved a better fate, in a better cause. Generals Gibbs and Kean were carried away, severely wounded; the former mortally. The plain between the front of the British, and the American lines, was strewn with dead; so dreadful a carnage, considering the length of time, and the numbers engaged, was per-

haps never witnessed. (Two thousand,) at the lowest estimate, pressed the earth, besides a number of the wounded who were not able to escape. The loss of the Americans did not exceed (seven killed, and six wounded.) General Lambert was the only general officer left upon the field; being unable to check the flight of the British columns, he retired to his encampment.

6. In the meantime, the detachment under colonel Thornton succeeded in landing on the right bank, and immediately attacked the intrenchment of general Morgan. The American right, believing itself outflanked, abandoned its position, while the left maintained its ground for some time; but finding itself deserted by those on the right, and being outnumbered by the enemy, they spiked their guns and retired. Colonel Thornton was severely wounded, and the command devolved on colonel Gobbins, who seeing the fate of the assault on the left bank, and receiving orders from general Lambert, re-crossed the river.

7. On the return of general Lambert to his camp, it was resolved, in consultation with admiral Cochrane, to retire to their shipping. This was effected with great secrecy; and during the night of the eighteenth, their camp was entirely evacuated. From the nature of the country, it was found impossible to pursue them; they left eight of their wounded, and fourteen pieces of artillery. Their loss in this fatal expedition was immense; besides their generals, and a number of valuable officers, their force was diminished by at least five thousand men. It was in vain, as in other instances, to conceal the truth of the affair; and the sensations which it produced in Great Britain, are not easily described; the conduct of the ministry was regarded as shamefully dishonourable, in thus stretching forth one hand to receive the olive, which was tendered by America, and at the same time secretly wielding a dagger with the other.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who commanded the British in their attack on New-Orleans?—2. How numerous was the British force?—3. Who

commanded the Americans?—4. How large was general Jackson's army?—5. How great was the British loss?—6. What was the American loss?—7. What British officers were killed?

THE MISERIES OF WAR.

1. **THOUGH** the whole race of man is doomed to dissolution, and we are all hastening to our long home ; yet at each successive moment, life and death seem to divide between them the dominion of mankind, and life to have the larger share. It is otherwise in war ; death reigns there without a rival, and without controul. War is the work, the element, or rather the sport and triumph of Death, who glories not only in the extent of his conquest, but in the richness of his spoil. In the other methods of attack, in the other forms which death assumes, the feeble and the aged, who at the best can live but a short time, are usually the victims ; here they are the vigorous and the strong.

2. It is remarked by the most ancient of poets, that in peace children bury their parents, in war parents bury their children ; nor is the difference small. Children lament their parents, sincerely, indeed, but with that moderate and tranquil sorrow, which it is natural for those to feel who are conscious of retaining many tender ties, many animating prospects. Parents mourn for their children with the bitterness of despair ; the aged parent, the widowed mother, loses, when she is deprived of her children, every thing but the capacity of suffering ; her heart, withered and desolate, admits no other object, cherishes no other hope. It is Rachel, weeping for her children and refusing to be comforted, because they are not.

3. But to confine our attention to the number of slain would give us a very inadequate idea of the ravages of the sword. The lot of those who perish instantaneously may be considered, apart from religious prospects, as comparatively happy, since they are exempt from those lingering diseases and slow torments to which others are liable. We cannot see an individual expire,

though a stranger, or an enemy, without being sensibly moved, and prompted by compassion to lend him every assistance in our power. Every trace of resentment vanishes in a moment; every other emotion gives way to pity and terror.

4. In these last extremities we remember nothing but the respect and tenderness due to our common nature. What a scene then must a field of battle present, where thousands are left without assistance and without pity, with their wounds exposed to the piercing air, while the blood freezing as it flows, binds them to the earth, amidst the trampling of horses, and the insults of an enraged foe! If they are spared by the humanity of the enemy and carried from the field, it is but a prolongation of torment. Conveyed in uneasy vehicles, often to a remote distance, through roads almost impassable, they are lodged in ill-prepared receptacles for the wounded and the sick, where the variety of distress baffles all the efforts of humanity and skill, and renders it impossible to give to each the attention he demands. Far from their native home, no tender assiduities of friendship, no well known voice, no wife, or mother, or sister, is near to sooth their sorrows, relieve their thirst or close their eyes in death! Unhappy man! and must you be swept into the grave unnoticed and unnumbered, and no friendly tear be shed for your sufferings or mingled with your dust?

5. We must remember, however, that as a very small proportion of a military life is spent in actual combat, so it is a very small part of its miseries which must be ascribed to this source. More are consumed by the rust of inactivity than by the edge of the sword; confined to a scanty or unwholesome diet, exposed in sickly climates, harrassed with tiresome marches and perpetual alarms; their life is a continual scene of hardships and dangers. They grow familiar with hunger, cold, and watchfulness. Crowded into hospitals and prisons, contagion spreads amongst their ranks, till the ravages of disease exceed those of the enemy.

6. We have hitherto only adverted to the sufferings of those who are engaged in the profession of arms,

without taking into our account the situation of the countries which are the scene of hostilities. How dreadful to hold every thing at the mercy of an enemy, and to receive life itself as a boon dependent on the sword! How boundless the fears which such a situation must inspire, where the issues of life and death are determined by no known laws, principles, or customs, and no conjecture can be formed of our destiny, except as far as it is dimly deciphered in characters of blood, in the dictates of revenge, and the caprices of power!

7. Receive but for a moment the consternation which the approach of an invading army would impress on the peaceful villages in our own neighbourhood. When you have placed yourselves for an instant in that situation, you will learn to sympathize with those unhappy countries which have sustained the ravages of arms. But how is it possible to give you an idea of these horrors? Here you behold rich harvests, the bounty of Heaven, and the reward of industry, consumed in a moment or trampled under foot, while famine and pestilence follow the steps of desolation. There, the cottages of peasants given up to the flames, mothers expiring through fear, not for themselves but for their infants; the inhabitants flying with their helpless babes in all directions, miserable fugitives on their native soil! In another part you witness opulent cities taken by storm; the streets where no sounds were heard but those of peaceful industry, filled on a sudden with slaughter and blood, resounding with the cries of the pursuing and the pursued; the palaces of nobles demolished, the houses of the rich pillaged, and every age, sex, and rank, mingled in promiscuous massacre and ruin!

THE COMMON LOT.

Once in the flight of ages past,
 There liv'd a man; and who was he?
 Mortal! howe'er thy lot be cast,
 That man resembled thee.

- 2 Unknown the region of his birth;
The land in which he died unknown;
His name hath perish'd from the earth;
This truth survives alone—
- 3 That joy and grief, and hope and fear,
Alternate triumph'd in his breast;
His bliss and woe—a smile, a tear;
Oblivion hides the rest.
- 4 The bounding pulse, the languid limb,
The changing spirits' rise and fall;
We know that these were felt by him,
For these are felt by all.
- 5 He suffer'd—but his pangs are o'er;
Enjoy'd—but his delights are fled;
Had friends—his friends are now no more
And foes—his foes are dead.
- 6 He lov'd—but whom he lov'd, the grave
Hath lost in its unconscious womb;
O she was fair—but naught could save
Her beauty from the tomb.
- 7 The rolling seasons, day and night,
Sun, moon, and stars, the earth and main,
Erewhile his portion; life and light,
To him exist in vain.
- 8 He saw whatever thou has seen,
Encounter'd all that troubles thee
He was—whatever thou hast been;
He is—what thou shalt be.
- 9 The clouds and sun-beams, o'er his eye,
That once their shades and glory threw,
Have left in yonder silent sky,
No vestige where they flew.
- 10 The annals of the human race,
Their ruins, since the world began,
Of HIM afford no other trace
Than this—THERE LIV'D A MAN!

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